DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 242 091 EA 016 639

AUTHOR	Hensarling, Paul R.; And Others
TITLE	School Special Services: Organization and Administration. Third Edition.
PUB DATE	83
NOTE	444p.; For a separate compilation of evaluation instruments for assessing the effectiveness school special services, see EA 016 640.
AVAILABLE FROM	Demand Publishing Company, School Special Services, 4104 Nagle, Bryan, TX 77801 ($12.00; quantity discounts).
PUB TYPE	Books (010) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC18 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Administrative Organization; Administrator Guides; *Administrator Role; Adult Education; *Ancillary School Services; Attendance; Discipline Policy; Educational Trends; Elementary Secondary Education; Guidance Programs; Library Services; Lunch Programs; Office Management; *Organizational Effectiveness; Parent School Relationship; Personnel Management; Principals; *Public Relations; School Accounting; *School Administration; School Business Officials; School Health Services; School Law; School Maintenance; School Personnel; *School Role; School Safety; Special Education; Student Participation; Student Transportation; Superintendents; Textbook Selection

ABSTRACT

With an emphasis on implications for public relations, this comprehensive guide covers current theory and practice in the organization and administration of special school services. Chapters are devoted to school services under categories of the office, personnel, attendance, guidance, health, maintenance, safety, food service, transportation, textbooks, libraries, special education, discipline and student involvement, and adult education. Individual chapters discuss such aspects of each service as program objectives, historical background, selected research, principles, organization, recommended administrative policies, facilities, legal considerations, current trends, public relations, special problems, personnel management, and program evaluation. Exercises and a short bibliography accompany each chapter. (MJL)

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School Special Services

ORGANIZATION & ADMINISTRATION

EA 016 639

Paul R. Hensarling David A. Erlandson
Maynard J. Bratlien

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

of

SCHOOL SPECIAL SERVICES

by

PAUL R. HENSARLING DAVID A. ERLANDSON

MAYNARD J. BRATLIEN

THIRD EDITION

1983

ABOUT THE AUTHORS. . .

Dr. Paul R. Hensarling is a Professor Emeritus of Educational Administration at Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas, and Former Head of the Department of Education and Psychology. He has served in public schools as a teacher, principal, director of administrative research and school community relations and as superintendent of schools. His experience has included the local school system organization and supervision of all of the school special services described in this book. He organized and taught a graduate course several years for beginning administrators titled "School Special Services." He has a special concern about the organization and administration of school services as they relate to the success of the total school program.

Dr. David A. Erlandson is an Associate Professor of Educational Administration at Texas A&M University where he works actively with public school administrators and teaches courses in the Management of Change in Education, School Special Services and the Internship for Educational Administration. Prior to coming to Texas A&M University, Dr. Erlandson was on the staff of Queens College of the City University of New York. Earlier, he had been a teacher, an administrator, and a demonstration center director in the public schools of Illinois. Throughout the years, Dr. Erlandson has been active as a student, a professor, and an actively involved practitioner. His special interest is the fundamental preparation of principals and middle administrators.

Dr. Maynard J. Bratlien is an Assistant Professor of Educational Administration at Texas A&M University where he is involved with teaching courses in public school administration in the areas of School Finance and Business Management, School Special Services, The Superintendency, Computers in Educational Administration and Educational Administration Internships. He is actively involved with practicing school administrators in liason and coordinator roles associated with the Texas Association of School Boards and the Texas Association of School Business Officials. Dr. Bratlien has had extensive experience in the public school, having served as teacher, principal and central office administrator. Prior to assuming his position at Texas A&M University, Dr. Bratlien completed nine years in the position of Superintendent of Schools in Nebraska.

Published by:

Demand Publishing Company
4104 Nagle, Bryan, Texas 77801

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(Revised 1980, 1981, and 1983)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Over a period of years the content of each chapter of this book has been written, used, tested, revised, updated and rewritten. Perhaps a hundred people, specialists in their fields, have contributed in various ways. These include readers and reactors on a national level as well as graduate students in educational administration, who researched and did bibliographical work.

Major contributors to the content are:

T.M. Stinnett, Professor Emeritus, Texas A&M University

Robert R. Reilly, Professor, Educational Psychology, Texas A&M University

Robert A. Fellenz, Associate Professor, Adult Education, Texas A&M University

Bryan R. Cole, Associate Dean, College of Education, Texas A&M University

Arnold P. Payne, Assistant Superintendent, Gonzalez, Texas Schools

John E. Barden, Textbook Consultant, Steck-Vaughn, Houston Texas

Robert S. Hurley, Professor, Health Education, Texas A&M University

Raymond E. Cleveland, Louisiana State University, Alexandria, Louisiana

All of the above are specialists in the field in which they contributed.

Special appreciation is noted for the final revision and typing of the Third Edition to Texas A&M University Graduate Research Assistants, John A. Fluth and Beth Rowse. A note of some interest is that the Third Edition of this text has been entirely reproduced by microcomputer and the entire contents of the text are stored on minidisks, which facilitates continuous updating and revision.

Paul R. Hensarling

David A. Erlandson

Maynard J. Bratlien

PREFACE

Administrative problems, left unattended, seem to grow. Foresight and planning can prevent or modify them.

The problems about which this book is written are usually treated lightly in the general texts on school administration. Yet, bits and pieces of the organization and management of a school system, if omitted, can leave holes in the puzzle of successful administration. It is the purpose of this book to point out how certain problems which face educational administrators can be solved, prevented, or modified by correctly organizing and administering the areas of School Special Services. The text is not concerned with the details of methods of operation. Rather, it directly relates to organization and administration of the services so that methods may accomplish their purposes. By studying the aspects of problems in School Special Services, the reader should attain an understanding and some competence in the field of educational administration which would not otherwise be possible except by trial and error and by accumulating knowledge of management learned through years of experience.

School administrators should not spend major portions of their time putting out fires in the area of School Special Services, but should be prepared to administer these services in a creative and competent manner. By better management of his time, the administrator should develop harmonious relationships among teachers, parents, students, specialists, and the administrative team.

The term School Special Services is used to indicate those services performed by the educational agency which are in addition to and indirectly related to the instructional program. These areas are related to classroom instruction inasmuch as they provide assistance to the teacher in attaining the goals of the educational program. Library and textbook services and a competent office staff all help to produce an educational environment in which the classroom teacher can optimize learning experiences and teaching efforts. The purpose is child centered. Some services are provided to benefit the child and his family directly. The cafeteria program could be included in this grouping as well as transportation, safety services, guidance, and adult education.

Educational institutions have integrated some form of these into their system for many years, beginning with compulsory attendance laws enacted in Massachusetts in 1852. However, it is only recently that the trend toward coordination of all special services has been seen in American education. How can all these services and the specialists who implement them best be coordinated to achieve an ultimate goal?

Until recently many of these services were home functions. The schools were concerned with academics only. As John Dewey's plan to educate the child as a whole became understood and accepted, those activities which affect learning gradually began to shift to school responsibilities. Perhaps this started as a supplement to home experiences. Society has become more complex with improved communication and transportation, industrialization, and the movement of populations to the urban areas. As a result most of the special services can be performed more effectively and economically by coordinated effort.

It is the purpose of this book to discuss current practices - the organization and administration of these added services which present-day education requires.

Caught in the maelstrom of supervising many different programs, the administrator may neglect instruction leadership for weeks or even months. The community may never be the wiser. The school administrator should direct at least fifty percent of his time for leadership in the instructional program. It is unfortunate when an administrator lets his routine administrative duties rob him of the time for inter-personal relations with teachers, students, and parents. Also, it is unfortunate when the mismanagement of administrative duties leads to the loss of that most precious commodity - TIME TO THINK.

Administrative management requires planning, organization, supervision, and control. For the school administrator to achieve the goal of maximum time spent in educational leadership, he must learn to manage all of his time wisely. This he can do by effective planning. If an administrator is so involved with minutia that he does not have time for planning, then he cannot expect to proceed with organization, supervision, and control.

The ability to plan seems to be a gift some professionals have; yet, this skill is most often learned. At least, natural talents are enhanced. Planning is thinking ahead. It involves thinking about and writing an agenda of things to come. Some plans fail or fall short of expected goals because one important element is omitted - following through. Administrators have a tendency to see a problem solved through planning, but it becomes an immediate solution rather than a long-range application to like or similar situations. Plans should include alternate routes. Contingencies must be anticipated.

Organization comes after planning and is imperative to any well-run establishment, whether it is educational, commercial or industrial. Job criteria, individual responsibilities and authority, both direct and coordinate, should be well defined and understood by all personnel related to each service. Over-all goals should be formulated and agreed upon. Methods of reaching the goals should be fully discussed before implementation. At this point communication becomes important in the broadest sense. Effective organization properly communicated will prevent problems and mistakes due to lack of knowledge of plans and policies. The administrator in charge must be fully conversant in every detail. His immediate assistants must understand their roles. The total personnel must have a general understanding of organization as it pertains to each service performed and how full success depends upon their cooperation.

Supervision is one of the main functions of the school administrator of special services. The ultimate responsibility of a well-run school district is vested in the superintendency. In a similar manner, the responsibility for a school building operation rests with the principal. Although the administrator may delegate authority and duties, he must supervise the processes as they are carried out by his personnel. Only by discreet and properly applied supervision will the administrator be able to adjust, change, and manage the activities of his personnel to fit the needs of the system and make best use of the individual capabilities of the staff.

Without control (management) the planning may never reach actuality, organization is wasted, and supervision is meaningless. Any administrator in charge of human effort should possess managerial finesse at all times. Control or management does not imply restriction of individual freedom to perform one's duties; rather it is a means of adjustment, a way to try again when plans are not progressing well. Occasionally organization becomes disorganized and supervision does not exemplify quality. This is the time for control.

Too often beginning administrators delve into their first assignments without the proper awareness and knowledge of areas of administration which can cause them the most trouble in the shortest period of time. With this in mind, think about some of the problems which can arise through only slight mismanagement of some of the special services offered by the average school. Examples:

* A school lunch causes a few children to become ill;

* A child is left standing at the bus stop;

* First aid is poorly applied;

* A child is injured because of negligent safety practices;

* Some children fail to receive books;

* A handicapped child is embarrassed because of inadequate equipment;

The result of any one or all of these incidents places the school's image in a precarious position. School public relations decline. In a short time matters of dissent could occur, many of them unrelated to the original cause. Would the school administrator be judged incompetent by his board of education, since it is his ultimate responsibility to "run a good school?" What about the morale of teachers and their effectiveness in the classroom? Situations of this kind usually come to the public's attention with unusual speed. How much better it is to avoid mistakes which are related to these and other special services through astute organization and administration! The following chapters are dedicated to this purpose.

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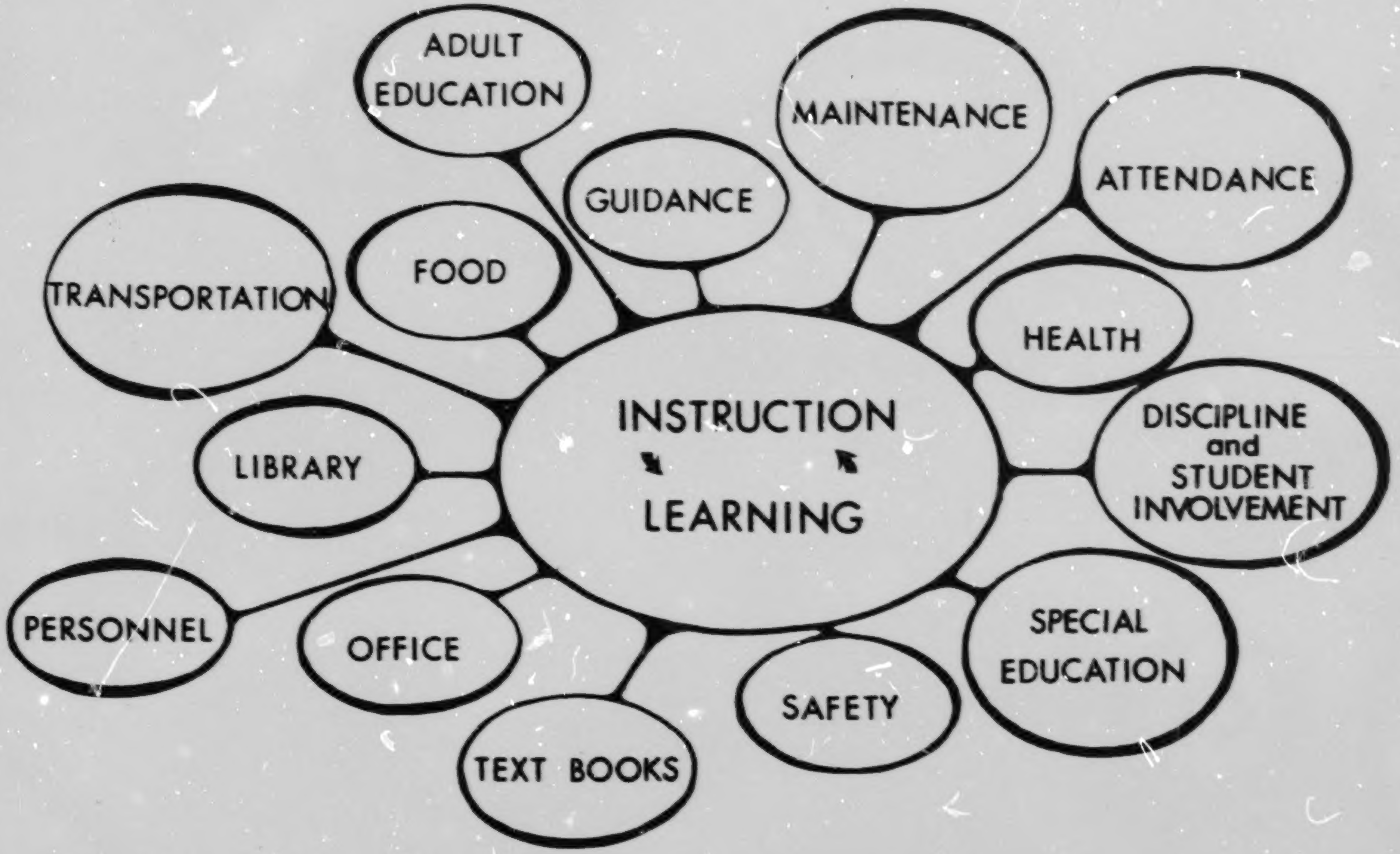


INSTRUCTION

LEARNING

ADULT EDUCATION

GUIDANCE

MAINTENANCE

ATTENDANCE

TRANSPORTATION

FOOD

HEALTH

LIBRARY

DISCIPLINE and STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

PERSONNEL

OFFICE

SPECIAL EDUCATION

SAFETY

TEXT BOOKS

SPECIAL SERVICES SUPPORT INSTRUCTION

Office Services

CHAPTER I

SCHOOL OFFICE
REPORT CARD
A-D
E-J
K-P

OFFICE SERVICES

The importance of the organization and administration of the services furnished through the school office is more apparent as the educative process becomes more complex. The office has become the "hub" around which most school programs and activities revolve.

Whereas the office of the business executive usually is remote from the factory production and distribution functions, the school administrator - especially the principal - is in the middle of the action. The customers (clients) are parents, children and youth who expect and get direct attention in and around the school office. What the office is can be easily observed. Too often the whole school is judged upon the basis of how well this office functions.

OFFICE
to your left

Adequate school office facilities are necessary; however, the qualifications of the personnel who operate the offices are more important. These people are extensions of the chief administrator as they provide services to teachers, parents, and students. Public relations is one of the principal functions of secretaries, clerks and other personnel.

How does the school office function in the educative process? Reference to "the office" pertains to the environment in which the school administrator transacts business and manages the major portion of the educational program. Since physical office facilities vary in size, purpose, organization, and function, an attempt is made here to generalize concepts concerning office operations while distinguishing between small, medium, and large school districts. The central office is distinguished from the office in the building or auxiliary unit. These offices function in relation to their local setting, educational goals, and purposes.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE SCHOOL OFFICE

The goals of office operation have undergone changes over the years, as revealed by the following historical summary.

The early school office was used almost solely for routine records and reports. These included records of pupil and teacher attendance, distribution and return of textbooks, inventory of school furniture, discipline of pupils, and payrolls for teachers and maintenance personnel. If the school was administered by a teaching principal, the office was likely to consist of a corner of a classroom - perhaps even a corner of his desk. When schools became large, supervising principals were placed in charge and were responsible for other small units; the office usually consisted of a small room which also was the center of additional supervisory activities such as classification of pupils and training of new teachers. Nevertheless, the principal was still an administrator of routine duties. The school office often reflected the limitations of his status.

During the second half of the nineteenth century and the early decades of the twentieth century, the status of the principal and the functions of the school office underwent a marked change. Factors contributing to this transition were the grading of schools, the freeing of the principal from teaching duties, the gradual addition of new subjects to the program of students, and the addition of nonacademic services, such as health, guidance, library, and other acitivites for the development of the whole child. School-community relations also became the prerogative of the school office during this period.

The office of the superindentent was affected by many of the same changes. Progress in psychology and education, extension of school-community relations, systematic ways of dealing with personnel, and improved procedures in evaluation and research necessitated delegation of duties and addition of auxiliary offices in the central educational organization. In large city systems the accumulation of departments sometimes resulted in assigning auxiliary administrative and staff services to district offices and centers. Development included not only expansion of the prestige and services of the school office, but also general changes from a station for the issuance of orders and direction to a center for democratic services to teachers and pupils. (9:162)

Of course, this change did not occur in all school offices. Administrators are agents who control change. Thus some school offices still exist solely as places where records and files are kept. In some cases, however, administrators are not completely responsible for office conditions and functions. The teaching pricipal, head-teacher, the principal without a secretary, and financially inadequate school districts are instances in which the administrator cannot always respond to change. The administrator may not always be responsible for unfavorable conditions existing in a school office. However, he does have control as an agent of change to develop effective approaches. An example is the principal's challenge to top level administration (the establishment) and the community to provide needed services to enable students adequately to prepare for their purposes in life.

FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL OFFICE

The school office is ideal as the center or hub of student and teacher services. Service is the performance of labor for the benefit of another. The following are examples of services which the school office should provide:

1) Facilitation of communications

2) Counseling for teachers

3) Conferences with parents

4) Research

5) Storage of school records

6) Evaluation of school records

7) Planning for school improvement

8) Encouragement of creative work

9) Initiating and fostering school-community relations

10) Encouraging educational enterprise. (9:165)

Repetitive routine tasks of the school office should be minimized and service function maximized. The school office should function in relation to other factors as follows:

1. In relation to the superintendent's office the local school office should provide:
    a. pupil accounting
    b. data collection
    c. property accounting

    d. financial accounting
    e. personnel accounting
    f. reports on instruction
    g. reports to superintendent by the principal

2. Services to pupils should include:
    a. personal services
    b. health services
    c. public welfare
    d. transportation services

3. Services to the staff of the school which should be provided are:
    a. provision for facilities in which to plan and relax
    b. teacher welfare
    c. facilities for non-professional personnel
    d. teacher workrooms
    e. information for teachers (2:142)

According to Jones, the school office is not only a place; it is a service center. While most school office work is done in the actual physical facility customarily called the office, the services reach into all parts of the building. It is through communication that information about the school is passed on to the students, their parents, the staff, and the community at large. (11:359)

COMMUNICATIONS

The school office personnel, under the direction of the principal, must employ many channels of communication. Some communication is necessarily one-way. It gives information or guidance from the sender to the receiver. The receiver does not immediately respond to the sender. Examples of this type of communication are:

1. Handbooks to teachers or students

2. Daily bulletins or weekly newsletters to the staff or community

3. The intercommunication system when it is used for announcements

4. Newspaper stories, radio and television programs and announcements

Any communication which is made to a large group is usually one-way.

Two-way communication is much more effective when used by the school office because it provides feedback. The receiver has the means to make an immediate reply. Ideas are developed; information is discussed. Personal contact is the primary means of two-way communication. Messengers, the telephone, or the intercom system can be a means of two-way communication.

Written communication is preferred over oral communication when the message is direct or has been composed from a consensus. Oral communication is most effective if interaction is needed at the time of the communication. The written communication usually conveys the desired message and is received simultaneously by all concerned. It can then be studied and reviewed appropriately. Apparently, two-way communication is preferred by most principals judging from the reported percentage of frequency of media used.

Types of Communication According to Preference

Type of Communication	Median Frequency Percent
Face-to-face	37.3
Telephone calls	30.4
Memos and letters	18.0
Announcements and bulletins	13.6
Formal reports	0.7

(1:533)

Voice and video teleconferencing services, using telephone lines and communications satellite links, are increasingly replacing person-to-person meetings and interstate travel. Memos and letters typed on paper are giving way to computer controlled electronic mail and calendar datebooks displayed on video screens. (12:30)

The school program should be presented to the public throughout the year, not only when persuasion is needed for specific school changes or a bond election. School objectives and progress reports should be given periodically to the public. Schools typically use mass media (papers, radio, television) to inform the public about the school program. Person-to-person communication should be structured so that parents, students, and teachers feel they know the "inside story." Parents of school students can be informed by letters, parent-teacher conferences, invitaion to visit the school, PTA meetings designed to show school programs and activities, open school board meetings, speeches, and citizens panels.

Personal contact between the principal and his staff, between the school office and the students, and between the school office and the parents and other publics is the most effective means of communication in establishing good relations with the school's internal and external publics.

ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL OFFICE SERVICES

The following definition of office work includes the main purpose for office organization. According to Roe,

> Office work may be simply defined as the process of facilitating communications within and without an organization by putting into written form for use when needed the plans, ideas, agreements, accomplishments, and records which, under simpler conditions would be stored in the mind of one person. (13:48)

The purpose of organization is to offer school office services. Organizational planning should include all the personnel involved in the delivery system. Organization includes the goals of the personnel and methods of implementaion written out on paper. It should not be necessary for the administrator to be present at all times for the organizational planning and implementation to be effective. A good beginning may be effected by putting guidelines for personnel into written form. However, this should not minimize to any degree the importance of oral interaction.

Organizational planning is necessary for maximum success. There are six levels of planning which the administrator may use. They are: (1) philosophy, (2) objectives, (3) programs, (4) organization, (5) staffing, (6) financing. (4:360)

SIX STEPS TO ORGANIZATION

A school system should be organized...schools should recognize that to meet the changing needs of society and meet the challenges of the future, they too must change, to survive.

1) Those responsible for the operation of the schools must identify specific identifiable goals. They must state the goals and objectives in measurable, evaluative terms.

2) Division of labor must take place.

3) Facilities must be used on a business-like approach.

4) Schools must change their approach to doing business, purchasing must be consolidated, and services should be bid.

5) School boards and the community must be aware of legal limitations which are imposed upon schools and limit the potential of the school to operate.

6) Schools must improve their public relations. (15:26,27)

Some authorities feel organization is necessary when work grows beyond what one person can do. Organization is also necessary for continuity and efficiency, even when one person can do all the work required. In organization, consideration should be given to the needs of the people and the work to be done. The organization of any office should be based on the work flow -- that is, the manner in which people accomplish their assigned tasks. Traffic flow should be considered. The administrator should establish a system to check and control the work being done under his supervision. Adjustment and flexibility is needed for effective operations.

LINE STAFF PATTERN

The line-staff pattern of organization seems most appropriate for school offices, although the team approach is appropriate in specific instances. The education of students necessitates that the approach be flexible. Innovations, educational objectives, occupational trends, abilities of personnel, equipment, and the environment dictate the organizational plans. Communication in the school is the key to successful operation. It is one of the principal functions of an office. All personnel in a school benefit from interaction and communication, be they up, down, or lateral. The administrator and other staff members should be accessible to students and teachers so that the latter are not intimidated by a maze of formal organizational structure. Organization in the schools is done with a different concept in mind than the organizational concept of business or industry. Businesses deal with goods and services rather than the pursuit of knowledge. School offices can often plan effectively to meet student and teacher needs as society demands by using appropriately designed methods and techniques while minimizing formal organizational patterns.

Local situation demands determine how the principal spends his time, how he organizes, and whether or not he delegates authority. A principal should keep in mind that the goal of the school office is to give service. A large percent of the principal's time too often is spent on routine office work, rather than in service to teachers, students, and the community. Ideally, the principal should give the majority of his time to educational leadership. A national study reveals the following data on use of time by principals across the nation. Also included is a suggested optimum use of the principal's time.

HOW PRINCIPALS SPEND THEIR TIME

Functions and Responsibilities	Percent of Time Spent in Activities	
	Actual	Ideal or Model
Routine	22.5	10.0
Activities	17.8	5.0
Teaching	13.0	2.0
Supervision	12.0	50.0
Pupil personnel	8.4	10.0
Professional meetings	6.6	5.0
Public relations	5.6	6.0
Administration of plant	4.6	2.0
Supts' conferences	2.8	2.0

Business management	2.7	1.0
School Board	2.2	0.0
Cafeteria	1.1	1.0
Transportation	0.7	1.0
Other		5.0

An effective organization allows the principal to delegate routine duties to the secretary, clerk, teachers, aides, student assistants, and auxiliary personnel. The type of services provided by the office is limited by the administrators ability to organize available trained personnel to handle te tasks assigned.

How does the administrator organize in view of the available personnel? The principal or office manager has a major responsibility for the organization, training, or orientation of his staff and the delegation of authority. Across the nation, there is great variation in secretarial assistance, especially for elementary principals. One out of every four or five supervising elementary principals struggles to do his job without any secretarial help. Three out of every four teaching principals lack even a part-time secretary. (5:17) An office without a secretary is better than an office without a principal. In either situation the administrator should enlist the help of the teachers and other personnel. Some responsibility may be delegated to capable upper grade students. Indeed, this is good training for them.

School office personnel is often of a quality less than that desired. For this reason, on-the-job training to upgrade skills of existing personnel is the best way to improve the school office staff. The teaching principal must divide his time carefully so that both effective teaching and office services are provided.

PHYSICAL LAYOUT AND OFFICE EQUIPMENT

Physical space requirements and equipment needs of a modern office depend on the size of the school and the educational environment. Adaptation of ideal criteria can be made to local situations based on needs, personnel and finances. No matter how large or small the available space, it should be functional. Physical features of the office complex should include the principal's office, secretarial space, reception area, conference room, health unit, storage, workroom, lounge, counseling space, and in some situations, a vault. Perhaps the counseling area for students should not be adjacent to space where disciplinary problems are handled.

The school office should be arranged and equipped so that the daily work schedule can be accomplished in the most efficient way. A clear understanding of educational and administrative services required is the first step in constructing, remodeling, or rearranging the school office. The administrator should plan the arrangement so that the environment is pleasant. Often, the first impression of a school is made by the office. Parents, school officials, community members, news media, and the students come to the office first for information and guidance.

CORRESPONDENCE

An open, pleasant atmosphere should be maintained. If space permits, an arrangement of comfortable chairs with a table and relevant reading material should be available in the reception area. Often some parent or student will need to wait in the office. Literature about the school system and educational values will make the time spent in the reception area valued rather than wasted.

Often a counter arrangement will separate the reception area from the secretarial space, permitting a feeling of openness without letting visitors overflow into the staff's working area. While the reception area, secretarial space, and clerical units may be arranged openly, the principal's office, conference room, and health room should be closed off and private. Privacy in these areas will help give a feeling of security and personal attention to those who enter and use the rooms. If possible, the nurse's station, guidance or counselor's office, storage facilities, and teachers' lounge should be adjacent to the secretarial and reception areas so that a minimum office staff can keep this portion of the school operating with maximum efficiency. The room used for duplicating materials also should be nearby so that the clerical worker or secretary will never be far from the telephone or reception area. She should be able to oversee all phases of the school office function while she works.

In addition to the conventional desks and furniture for administrators, secretaries, and clerks, the school office should contain an adequate number of telephones for the amount of communication flow expected through this medium. Some type of intercom control to the various classrooms is advisable. An additional telephone for public use could be installed to students and staff without interference to the office routine. This could be a pay telephone booth.

A system of mail trays or boxes for individual staff members should be included in the equipment of the school office. Storage and filing cabinets are necessary, as are typewriters, calculators, adding machines, and one or more duplicting machines with an adequate supply of the appropriate materials. A dictating machine often improves efficiency when there is only one secretary in the school office. If a master clock system is used, buzzer or bell installation should have controls within the school office. A master calendar of school events also should be kept near at hand in the school office for planning and public information purposes. Bulletin boards, a place for lost and found articles, and a vault or safe can be well utilized in the school office.

Data processing equipment of varying kinds also may be a part of a modern well-appointed school office. The use of a computer and a data processing system may free office personnel from some repetitive tasks so that they can concentrate on other nonclerical duties. Attendance reports, report cards, class rolls, health records, scheduling, honor rolls, cafeteria count, and other record-keeping tasks can be performed by a computer program designed to fit the needs of the individual school. Office personnel and administrators need to be aware of the capabilities of a computer as well as its limitations. They should consult with firms who design or offer computer programs and then prepare the necessary data so that efficient use of the computer system can be made. It is important for the school personnel using a computer system to remember that computer mistakes usually are initiated by human error.

SCHOOL OFFICE PERSONNEL

What personnel is needed for the school office? The size of the school and work load determine the personnel needs. Following are some guidelines:

Size of School Enrollment and Secretarial Staff

School Enrollment	Secretarial Requirements
100-300	One part-time secretary
300-600	One full-time secretary
600 or more	More than one full-time secretary

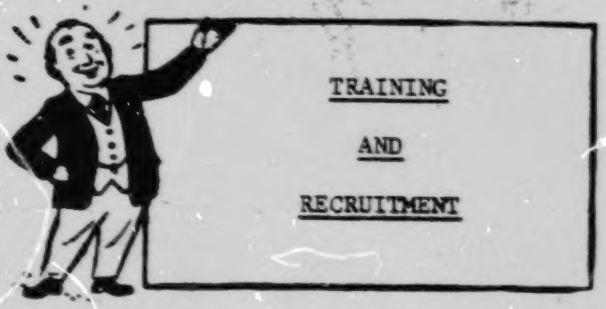
(5:17)

The number of administrators needed for effective office operations will vary from school district to school district. In some large school districts one principal is assigned to every 1,000 students, or principals may be assigned based on need for control in a school. A school of this size should have at least one assistant principal, perhaps two, and one or more counselors.

What is the role of the secretary and the clerk? The duties of the secretary and clerk can be categorized as clerical, public relations, financial, and miscellaneous. Some administrators prefer the title "clerk" and others prefer "secretary." According to the literature, a secretary is usually a highly trained professional person, a generalist. Administrators need to be more aware of the expectations of the secretary as an indispensible member of the management team so that the secretaries are allowed to function efficiently on the job in promiting the goals of the organization. (10:127) A clerk is usually an individual skilled in one or more areas and is assigned to regular routine office tasks. In some schools, clerks are specialists in one or more of the following areas:

attendance, bookkeeping, library, stenography, and filing.

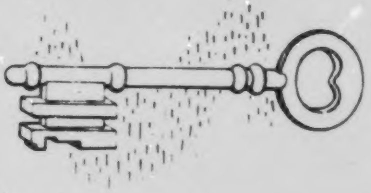
The overall role of the clerical staff is to handle office services and tasks delegated to them, freeing the principal for management and supervisory duties. Some routine clerical duties are: housekeeping, care of equipment, filing, telephone answering, mail routing, emergency procedures, supplies, typing, and duplicating. Special functions such as attendance, cafeteria, clinic, work requests, bus requests, payroll reporting, requisition records, activity funds, and textbooks are also within the delegated duties of the school office clerical staff. This listing of duties and responsibilties substantiates the notion that the school secretaries and clerks must indeed possess high qualities if the "hub" of office services is to function properly. Many administrators have said that his principal aide in the office is more difficult to replace than a member of the teaching staff. (3:6,23; 14:4,14; 6:3,7)



The best system of recruitment in the school office seems to be an on-going training program of available personnel. Through use of office practice and student office assistants a supply of trained clerical personnel can be made available. Administrators and secretaries should select students to work in the office who are not only capable, but who plan careers in office work. The school should provide some training in office practice through student office assistant programs. Additional training in high school, business school, or college should be encouraged. The administrator is responsible for the training or delegation for on-the-job training of clerical workers. This training can be done on a departmental basis as a part of the in-service education program.

Business offices typically offer more variety in employment of the clerical staff than a public school office. A higher degree of specialization is required in the large business office. For example, file clerks, clerk-typists, stenographers, and secretaries perform very special duties, whereas in a school office one person must often be versatile enough to perform all these duties and more. The business office often provides opportunity for social or professioanl interchange of thoughts or ideas. The public school's limited office staff does not usually provide these wide choices. The public school secretary may feel isolated in school where she has few social contacts at work. The school secretary may feel that she has lower status than professional teaching personnel and thus develop negative attitudes and reactions toward the staff. A good relationship between office personnel and the professional staff must have prime importance and must be promoted at all times by the administrator. The administator must match the goals of the prospective personnel and their personalities with the type of position which he has to offer. Selectivity in hiring practices can promote good personnel relations.

To some prospective employees the environment of the public school may be more desirable than that of business. The class of people to be found in a public shcool is often more congenial and intellectually challenging. School hours and the nine or ten month work term are attractive conditions to some clerical workers who have school-age children of their own. Where social cliques may exist in large business offices, this is less often the case in schools. The principal is a key factor in the espirit de corps among all personnel, more especially between services people and the professional staff.



SCHOOL OFFICE MANAGEMENT

Education can benefit today as it has in the past by using business and industrial techniques adaptable to local school office management. The main difference in the two structures is that businesses deal with goods and services and the school is knowledge centered, and deals with people. The acquisition of knowledge today, however, is also situated in a service oriented climate.

Some of the areas in which education could profit most by using business and industrial techniques are in personnel management, finance, accounting, and planning. Six coordinated cadres of business executives and technical specialists were studied in over 200 of the 712 Ohio school districts. The study discovered adminstrative and business practices waste thousands of dollars annually. This commission (called the Little Hoover Commission) came up with 250 recommendations, which, if employed, could save Ohio taxpayers $100,000 per year. Building utilization, volume purchasing, and recognition and consolidation of schools headed the list compiled by amounts of money to be saved. This commission declared that in using only those recommended business practices in the school office regarding attendance, accounting, personnel, management, office systems and procedures, data processing, and accounting the districts would save $3,394,000 annually.

Some of the recommended practices seem impractical to educators of children. However, there is a lesson in this report for schools, and many of the ideas are adaptable to the improvement of school office services. The motive of business is profit; the school's goal is an educated youth. Local conditions, finances, values, and need indicate the educational needs of a community. If the savings could be realized as indicated in these reports without making great sacrifices in individualized education for youth, then the system should be sound financially and educationally.

Training for Administrative Management

A recent dictionary defines administration as direction or management. Administration is more than management. It involves major leadership functions not listed under general management. The term management seems inadequate to describe the major activities of the principal.

Are school administrators adequately trained for office management? Research indicates that the training in office management usually received by school adminstrators is not adequate for all phases of office operation. School administrators need additional training in business management. However, this does not apply to all office situations. The office size, diversification of duties, and services required affect the adequacy of the administrator's training for office management.

The following lists are given by Anderson and Van Dyke to indicate the usual business responsibilities of the principal:

General Operations

1. Budget planning
2. Procuring supplies & equip.
3. Distributing materials
4. Taking inventory
5. Storing materials
6. Food services
7. Student transportation
8. Rentals and fees

Extra-class Activities Operation

1. Budget
2. Securing financial support
3. Purchasing
4. Handling recpts. & disbs.
5. Accounting
6. Storing & inventorying
7. Reporting
8. Misc. managerial duties

(1:511)

Trends in School Office Management

In school management there is an increased need for leadership emitting from the office to bring about change. There is no doubt that change will come. Some trends may be expected in the management of school office services in the future:

1. More decentralization of authority and responsibility.

2. Office becoming centralized in small school districts with pooled clerical staff and administrators.

3. Large scale use of data processing and computerized programs.

4. Utilization of the school office as a center of community services and the school building as a community center.

5. Increased need for principals to impart human values to the educational programs -- with the school functioning more in the role of home training.

6. Increased need for administrators highly skilled in office operations -- preparation including an internship.

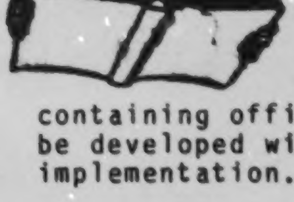
7. Requirements for increased specialization of school administrators in areas of management, finance, organization, data processing, public relations, etc.

8. New positions created in school administration to provide modern office services such as equipment maintenance specialists.

The trend toward separation of administrative duties in larger school units - one for administration, the other for instructional leadership - can already be seen. Coordination of these functions is essential. In the school with two or more assistants, this organization becomes completely feasible, assuming proper qualifications of the various administrative personnel. In the small school, however, the principal still wears all hats.

The trend is for large school districts to hire a public relations specialist to coordinate all types of communication. In some school districts the public relations specialist also works as a sponsor for the yearbook and the school newspaper. The public relations specialist in the large school district would function from the superintendent's office. However, the smaller school districts may utilize a teacher of journalism, English, or business services as a part-time public relations representative. In this case, public relations may continue to be a local school office function with guidelines for coordination furnished from the central administration.

SCHOOL OFFICE PROCEDURE



An office manual is needed to provide formal policies on structure and organization. Also, it will encourage continuity. Flexible and frequent revision of the manual may be required for smooth operation. This manual containing office policy, rules, and job descriptions should be developed with the staff for effective communication and implementation. Simplicity is the best format for the office manual in small school districts. Rules should give guidelines but allow for flexibility in handling day-to-day situations.

Forms should be designed for long term use without revision and should be distributed as needed to students, staff, and parents. Forms used in the school office should be standardized according to an accepted format as suggested below:

1. By title for easy identification
2. By consecutive numbering
3. According to instructions
4. For easy entry of information (incorporating good body design)
5. By authorization or placing responsibility for data entered. (11:363)

Some existing records could very well be eliminated or combined into one item; some forms are used long after the need for them has ceased to exist. (7:108)

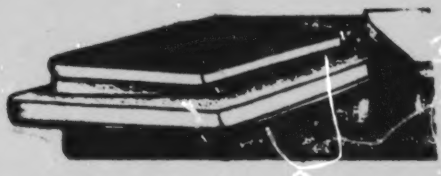
A well recognized system of filing should be established to meet the record repository needs. Suggested filing categories might include the following: payroll data, budget records, bills and financial reports, teacher credentials and records, teachers' contracts, applications for positions, book lists, equipment lists, class schedules, attendance records, library lists, catalogues, inventories, bus routes, complaint files, annual reports, correspondence, athletic records, assembly data, fire and other emergency drills, local district reports, state reports and correspondence. In addition to the manual, much of these data should be computer stored.

A schedule of report due dates should be set up and periodic office staff meetings should be held to review projected time tables. The main reports employed in program accounting include the principal's and mid-management reports to the superintendent; the superintendent's reports to the board; reports to the state; reports to accrediting agencies; and reports to professional fact-finding agencies and organizations, such as the state association, U.S. Office of Education and the National Education Association.

The main records employed in program accounting include curriculum reports and materials, special service handbooks and bulletins, and supervisory bulletins and reports.

PRINCIPAL'S ANNUAL AND INTERIM REPORTS

The most important single record of the status and progress of the educational program is the annual report of the principal to the superintendent. Its purpose is to provide a comprehensive account of the school's educational accomplishments and of the characteristics of its student body and staff during the academic year. In some school systems, the principal's report is included either in its entirety or in digest in the superintendent's annual report to the board of education. Consequently, its timing and format should be planned with that probability in mind.



Although some superintendents and boards do not require an annual report from the principal, its preparation is a wise investment of his time and effort. There is no question as to the value of this type of systematic review. It is a contribution to the improvement of the school and to the professional effectiveness of the principal who makes it.

The keys to the efficient preparation of a comprehensive annual report are to design supplementary records so that they may be easily summarized for reporting purposes and to enlist the assistance of department heads, counselors, secretaries, librarians, and activity directors in keeping a running account of activities and developments in their departments. These accounts should be planned so that they can be readily summarized at the close of the school year in a form appropriate for the principal's report. A monthly report is recommended so that interim evaluations may be made.

The well-developed yearly principal's report will typically include the following: (A list from which to choose)

1. Letter of transmittal

2. Summary statement by the principal

3. Student population facts including: a. total enrollment compared to previous years; b. summer academic and recreational enrollments; c. number of graduates compared to previous years; d. number of transfers in and out; e. number of dropouts; f. age-grade progress table for students; g. residence of students and their previous schools; h. number

of pupils transported; i. tuition paying students; j. attendance data for each month and for the year; k. summary of honors and awards; l. distribution of student population by aptitude test scores;

4. Faculty and other personnel: a. list of faculty members, with degrees and colleges attended; b. professional improvement undertaken by faculty members; c. faculty changes, resignations, and additions; d. teaching loads; e. list of substitute teachers and their preparation; f. in-service staff activities; g. members of office, health and custodial staff; and h. community service activities of staff.

5. Curriculum and Instruction: a. total courses offered; b. graduation and special curriculum requirements; c. enrollments by departments and courses; d. summer and advanced placement enrollments; e. enrollments in ability-grouped courses; f. major curriculum changes; g. curriculum guides and other materials developed; h. curriculum revision in progress; i. curriculum surveys; j. curriculum conferences and consultants; k. textbook lists; l. use of audio-visual materials; m. results of standardized achievement tests; n. schedule of classes; o. experimental programs undertaken and results; p. recommendations for improvement.

6. Extra-class activities: a. list of activities sponsored; b. enrollments in each activity; c. summary of activities and projects undertaken for each organization during the year; d. financial statements for activities; e. activity honors and awards to students; f. summary of interscholastic contests and records; g. summary of student council membership and projects; h. list if faculty sponsors and activities; i. statements of needs and recommendations.

7. Guidance program: a. list of counselors and their assignments; b. summary of distribution of counselor's time; c. testing program and results; d. follow-up study of graduates; e.follow-up study of dropouts; f. placements and scholarships; g. group guidance activities; h. experiments and studies by guidance staff.

8. Business affairs: a. budget; b. inventory of supplies and equipment; c. report of textbooks; d. financial statements.

9. Building maintenance: a. evaluation of maintenance services; b. major repairs and improvement; c. summary of needs and recommendations.

10. Community relations: a. PTA and other parent organizations and activities; b. news releases; c. radio and television programs; d. faculty participation in community groups; e. school visitations; f. school exhibits and programs.

11. Library: a. total and per capita circulation; b. acquisitions; c. audio-visual equipment; d. special services; e. use of professional materials; f. needs for improvement.

12. Health services: a. number of examinations; b. types of examinations; c. special instructions; d. students attended; e. needs for improvement.

13. Food services: a. number of students served monthly and yearly; b. health standards; c. needs and recommendations; d. financial statement; e. government assistance if applicable. (1:543)

State departments of education require some type of annual report from each school system in the state. Although this report is the responsibility of the superintendent of schools, usually he requests his principals to prepare those sections which call for data about their schools.

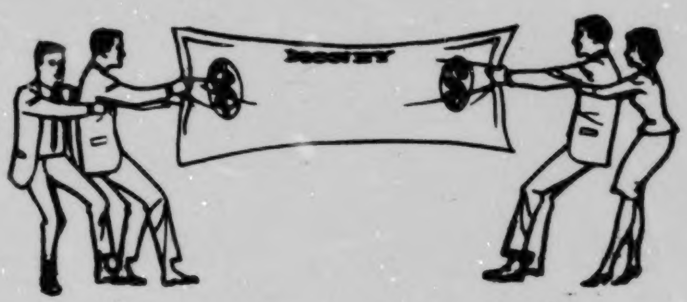
The form and content of these annual reports vary considerably, depending upon state laws and departmental regulations. However, much of the information requested by the state is the same as that called for by several of the regional accrediting associations and can be used for both. Information included in state and association reports also is needed for the principal's annual report and, with careful planning, can be organized so that it will serve this purpose as well. Data most frequently called for on state and regional reports includes the vertical organization of the school, enrollments by classes, number of graduates, course offering, extra-classroom activities, guidance services, preparation and assignment. (1:545)

Data should be accurate, valid, and should be collected at the appropriate time. Data collection should serve a specific purpose and should be collected by personnel other than teachers if it involves clerical skill only.

Inventories of equipment and supplies should be made periodically. Old forms should be stored for several years until they no longer may serve a useful purpose. Worn out or obsolete equipment must not be destroyed or sold without administrative approval. All gifts are permanent property of the school district.

FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING

The average office is not equipped to handle large sums of money. Some schools have vaults, but money should never be left in the school building overnight. Burglars finding money in a building (either a small or large sum) are likely to return. The damage done to the building far exceeds the time and money saved by not using a more conservative method of cash deposit. Armored deliveries can be used by schools, or monies can be taken to the bank or central office each day. One person should be designated to handle all monies coming into the office. A system of "turning in" and "taking" money out of funds should be developed. An internal accounting system should establish a school operating fund and an activity fund. Some schools have petty cash funds for small purchases. Sound budgetary and acccounting practices should be utilized. Some school districts have a central business office where school monies can be deposited; other districts allow schools to use local banks.



STUDENT AND STAFF PERSONAL SERVICES

The school office exists for service. Office personnel should handle students' personal needs such as use of the telephone, lost and found items, and social problems, without interfering with the students' independence and personal growth.

Sound rules should be established in accordance with school district policy to handle the health and medical needs of students. Parents should be required to submit an authorization form for medical care. Administrators, office personnel, and teachers should be trained to administer first aid. Good judgment as to the nature of the illness and first aid to be given is very imporant. One can be held liable for administering "treatment" when serious injury or illness result. The school nurse usually takes care of matters of this type, but many schools do not have a full-time nurse. Parents of the ill or injured child should be contacted. If parents cannot be reached, use good judgment in administering first aid. Isolating the student, or obtaining professional medical care is important. If a student is too sick to go to class, then he should be taken home as soon as possible.

Most schools provide some type of assistance or services to needy students. This typically includes free lunch, school supplies, or work aid in the case of mature student. The professional staff should refer students to the appropriate community agency for consideration to receive other benefits or welfare assistance. Students who do not have adequate food or clothing cannot take full advantage of educational opportunities. The administrative staff can work closely with the Parent-Teacher Association and other organizations concerned with the welfare of children to establish a plan of aid which will directly benefit the disadvantaged child without unduly embarrassing him.

POSITIVE LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

School employees are not different in some ways from those in the business and industry domain. Research has shown marked difference in production quantity and quality if the employee is motivated through positive attitudes rather than mandates. Sometimes, however, the harder the leader tries, the more skeptical and suspicious some employees become. The point being made here is that people are individuals. Things management do and the way they are done determine the degree to which personnel are turned on - or off. The soft sell allows the employee to inject himself into the decision making. Therefore, a good office manager uses fault finding, finger pointing, and scapegoating very sparingly. Instead he uses a low key, constantive approach. Positive leadership by precept and example is the motivation needed in the arena of school office services. Shared leadership within the office environment, when properly understood, is usually accepted, freeing the administrator to operate in a more relaxed and meaningful way.

INITIATING AND FOSTERING GOOD PUBLIC RELATIONS

Every community wants to have pride in its schools. Schools are a focal point for community interests and values. The quality of the educational program has an effect on public relations as students complete their community education, enroll in institutions of higher learning, and/or become employed in their own or other communities. The education these graduates exhibit is one of the principal ways in which the school is evaluated.

The physical arrangement and appearance of the school office conveys to people the quality of education received in the school. An attractively arranged office may not necessarily correlate with quality instruction, but the general public thinks so. The office should not be too luxuriously furnished, however. Opposition may arise in the form of objections to lavish spending of public funds. The school office should be attractive, functional, and in keeping with the social and economic standards of the community.

Courtesy is the most important trait for office personnel to cultivate. Visitors to the office form opinions of the school based on the way they are treated by first line contacts. In many instances, the custodial staff may direct the visitor to the office. These people also need to be made aware of the vital role they play in creating good or ill will for the school they serve. Many people do not visit the school in person. They communicate with the school by telephone. Good telephone manners, directing calls efficiently, giving correct information, setting up appointments, and recording messages are major stepping stones to good office public relations. The public school's clerical staff can often make or break a school's image.

The office projects an image? Yes, it does - good, bad, or indifferent. The school office portrays the public's conception of the school's personality. A schol system, more often the school unit, may be actually better or worse than the image projected by office organization, management, and personnel. Fortunately, most school administrators and office personnel realize the importance of good public relations. They strive to serve their publics with courtesy and efficiency. However, only one of several office personnel may negate the efforts of all. Also, the organization structure itself may lessen the effectiveness of conscientious personnel.

This is why it is so important for the administrator to evaluate office services and to provide opportunities for improvements in the areas needed. Specific in-service training and review in public relations techniques are important.

The secretary in the front office is identified usually as "the office." She represents the total office as well as the school as a whole. This person's total personality and intelligence must be requisite to assignment to this position in the school or system. She is everything to everybody. She is usually the first, and sometimes the only contact with several publics. The telephoner and occasional visitor settles his problem or is served by the secretary. A courteous, interested and knowledgeable person in this position is an invaluable asset to school public relations. She must know enough about everything to either handle the problem at hand or know to whom it should be referred. She must act as a buffer or soother of irate parents, disgruntled teachers and dissatisfied students. She gains her reward in a satisfaction of success in these responsibilities. Compliments and expressions of appreciation are in order from an alert administrator for the expertise she exhibits. Composure in exasperating situations is meritorious and contributes greatly to the projection of a good PR image. She is the lubricant which causes wheels to turn with a minimum of friction.

Public Relations *IS* Your Business!

To a lesser degree, all the other office personnel play an important role in public relations. Nonetheless, the administrators - principals, superintendent and his staff - are held accountable in the final analysis. As the late President Truman so aptly put it, "The buck stops here." Office management can be delegated, but a public relations oriented administrator causes the system to work.

He must make himself available to all with whom he deals - teachers, students, parents, the auxiliary personnel and collegues. This takes time, effort and organization. Most of his public relations through availability can be outside the confines of his office. Many minor problems and questions can be solved by the simple act of being visible in the hallways for easy access before, between and after classes. A question answered may be a problem solved or prevented. It is also a time when support can be shown, recognition given when appropriate, and in a natural and informal setting. The administrator gains for himself an image of one who is friendly, interested and concerned about the objectives of the whole school, the happy environment for teaching and learning.

Public relations is everybody's business, but most often it can succeed or fail in the office setting.

ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION

In the dynamic changing society, awareness of the contemporary needs of a school service is necessary. This is especially true of school office services because of the diversity of the people they serve. Sensitivity to problems or opportunities for improvement are foreseen by the alert administrator. It is much better to prepare for and make changes which will prevent problems or improve services than to take such action under pressure. Therefore, continuous, systematic evaluation is important. A team of knowledgeable practitioners or experts may be desirable occasionally. An office which must reorgnize and expand should have guidlines of authentic criteria. An instrument for the evaluation of office service is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services. (8)

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for OFFICE SERVICES

You are the principal of a junior high school with 1200 students. On your staff, you have 56 teachers, a full-time librarian, three guidance counselors, and an assistant principal. In addition, the central office has allocated four custodians and the equivalent of four secretarial positions to your school. Also, you have a typical number of paraprofessionals. (Assume this to be "your school" for other school special services when applicable.)

1. How, in terms of responsibility and function, will you assign your secretaries? Defend your answers in terms of organizational principles.

2. How will you organize your office to ensure that you have adequate time for planning?

3. What channels will you use for communicating with your staff, with the central office, and with the community? What information will flow over each of these channels?

4. Assume that your superintendent requires you to write an annual report summarizing the status of your school, but that he leaves its format and contents to your ingenuity. What will you include in this report? Why?

5. Design a floor plan for the main office of your school.

6. Identify five or more major concepts about office services.

Personnel Services

BUS
SCHOOL STATEMENTS

CHAPTER II

PERSONNEL SERVICES

Perhaps no more important function faces the school superintendent and his staff than that of personnel services. Nothing contributes more to staff morale than enlightened personnel services.

This has become increasingly clear in recent years with the upsurge of what generally has been termed "teacher militancy." With the advent of professional negotiation and collective bargaining, there has developed a division among staff professional personnel, setting classroom teachers off from other segments in an adversary or conflict posture. The intensity of this adversary posture has resulted in many strikes and work stoppages among teachers. In the second week of the 1978-79 school term there were teacher picket lines in fourteen states affecting almost one million students. This trend seems to be escalating so that it has become a national problem. (7) Upset with salaries, conditions, and advancement potential, nearly 1,000 teachers departed the Houston, Texas Independent School District between the 1978-79 and 1979-80 terms. (1)

The causes of this unrest are many, but the basic one is the lack of participation of teachers in determining personnel services and policies. For too long school boards and administrators sought to meet the situation by denouncing teachers as militants, revolutionaries, radicals, and rebels. The plain fact is that what teachers sought is a principle that permeates all of western culture -- the right of people to participate in determining the rules, regulations, or laws under which they work, participating either directly or through their elected representatives. In other words, the flow of the times has brought teachers abreast of prevailing mores in many other professions and occupations. Historically, teachers have been subservient, quiescent, and acquiescent.

Not any more. They now pursue what they consider as a democratic right with startling aggressiveness. No longer, even in the smallest of districts, are they willing to be told arbitrarily what they shall or shall not do. They are demanding a voice in determining the rules under which they are to work. Under the laws of most states, school boards have the right to determine personnel policies. The reality of the situation demands that these policies be derived in collaboration with the school staff.

THE NECESSITY FOR ENLIGHTENED PERSONNEL SERVICES

Until recent years, there was the assumption that local boards and their administrators were all-powerful in fixing rules and regulations under which the school staff could be employed and dismissed. But during the 1960's, such arbitrary power was greatly ameliorated. The federal courts widely applied the guarantees in the Federal Constitution to teachers and other public employees, as previously applied only to other citizens.

There was a time when courts tended to view public employment as a privilege, not a right. But that viewpoint no longer prevails; all the rights to due process accorded other citizens now apply to teachers.

A surprising development is the relatively large number of cases of teachers appealing to the courts over actions of local school boards, especially with reference to dismissals, and teachers have won a surprisingly large number of the cases. This is a new development and may be attributed, in large part, to the aggressive action of several powerful national organizations in providing financial support to aggrieved teachers. Of course, many of these cases arose from school integration, but many have no connection with that problem. Among these organizations are the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the National Education Association and their allied state education association, the American Federation of Teachers, and the American Civil Liberties Union. Prior to such aid, a dismissed teacher, without a job, and without income, simply did not have the resources to appeal to the courts. Thus, he was compelled by circumstances to accept meekly the decision of the local board and look for another job. That is drastically changed now, and boards are being overruled by the courts in cases where due process has not been carried out.

"Due process", as used in this connection (defined in the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution) requires that an accused person has the right to an open hearing, the right to face his accuser, and summon witnesses in his behalf to rebut the charges.

Another evidence of the new posture of teachers is state legislation, tending toward the democratization of staff personnel administration. In 1979, there were 35 states which have laws permitting collective bargaining by teachers. 33 states mandated such bargaining and 2 states had permissive legislation.

Obviously, the day of unilateral, arbitrary decision-making with regard to working conditions is gone or is passing rapidly. There is no avoiding the necessity of establishing cooperatively developed personnel procedures.

PERSONNEL POLICIES

Probably the chief cause of friction between administration and teachers in a given school district is the absence of a set of personnel policies. The policies must be clearly written, adopted by the board, and placed in the hands of members of the staff.

Basic principles of such a set of personnel policies include:

1. They should be cooperatively developed.
2. They should be constantly refined.
3. They should be officially adopted by the board, reproduced and distributed to all members of the board, and all personnel affected.
4. They should reflect the philosophy and objectives of the school system.
5. They should be flexible, capable of adjustment as new conditions arise.
6. Their development should be initiated by the administration.

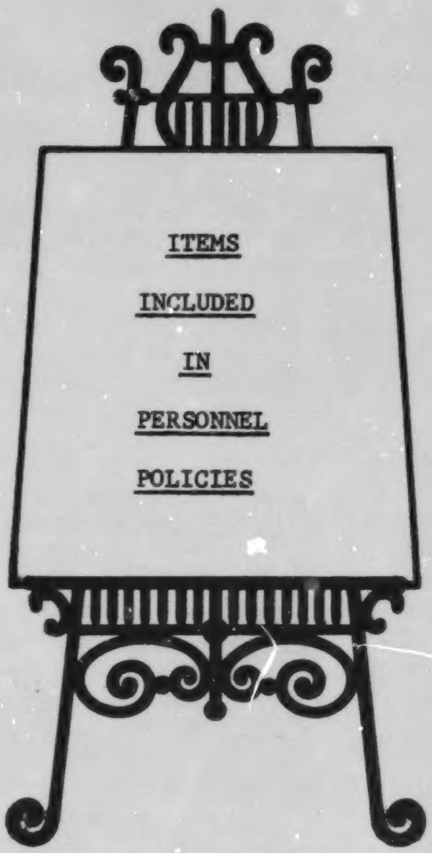
A set of personnel policies should be comprehensive as to cover all matters of concern to the staff. Among these matters of concern are the following:

1. Responsibilities of administrative and supervisory staff, classroom teachers, clerical staff, custodial staff, cafeteria, transportation, and other personnel.
2. Selection and appointment procedures, preparation

and qualifications of adminisrative and supervisory personnel, preparation and certification of classroom teachers, qualification of non-certified personnel, eligibility tests, process of selection and appointment, health exams, references, examinations, interview required, role of principal in selection.

3. Employment conditions, contracts, salary schedules, assignments, promotions, transfers, school calendar and time schedules, evaluations, substitutes, retirement provisions, resignations, tenure, leaves (sick, maternity, study, travel, sabbatical, personal leaves, professional meetings), fringe benefits (retirement, insurance -- liability, life, health, accident -- tax sheltered annuities).

4. Working conditions: instructional materials, teaching load, teacher aides and aids, school building, school contests authorized, handling controversial subjects, extra-curricular activities, grading system, report to parents.



Several years ago, the NEA Professional Rights and Responsibilities Commission issued a consensus statement on personnel policies, endorsed by several of the large departments of NEA (including the Department of Classroom Teachers), as well as the National School Boards Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, as follows:

1. The essentials of practical personnel policies:

   *Administrative policies that bring out the best in people

   *Practices mutually agreed upon by employer and employee.

   *Professional obligations of employees to give their best services and to strive for self-improvement.

   *Good will and ethics liberaly mixed in employer-employee relationships.

   *Orderly dismissal procedures which include written notice of reasons, a fair hearing on the charges, if desired, opportunity to call witnesses and prepare a defense , the right to appeal.

2. The foundation of good personnel and instructional conditions is made up of many factors, including the following:

   *Well written laws establishing conditions of employments, such as are in effect in a number of states.

   *Local policies concerning the duties and functions of all professional personnel, including a clear statement of the purposes and procedures of sound employment practices

   *Attitudes of mutual faith and good will among classroom teachers, administrators, and boards of education which will permit good teaching to develop in an atmosphere of understanding and freedom from suspicion.

   *Channels of communications made effective through organizations, conferences, and publications in order that board members, administrators, and teachers may have ways of coming together on problems of mutual concern.

   *Public relations that promote wide understanding of the purposes and procedures of reasonable personnel policies and practices.

   *Participation by the professional staff in the development of the policies dealing with employment, promotions, transfers, salaries, instruction, and other problems of employment and teaching.

*Systematic plans for employment including clearly written statements of school policies with emphasis on salary schedules, sick leave provisions, professional growth policies and promotion procedures.

3. The structure of personnel practices may be further improved when there are :

*Written rules to provide the basis for discussion and understanding. These rules may be in contracts or in booklets, but every teacher should have a copy.

*Salary schedules, written and drafted in accordance with acceptable standards (many issues can be settled by a salary plan worked out cooperatively).

*Communication channels for clearing staff problems (confidence is promoted by properly kept records and by prompt answers to teachers' questions).

*Standards to guide transfers, promotions, assignments (When agreed upon by all concerned, they are likely to follow reasonable and ethical patterns.

*Classroom conditions suitable for good instruction (adequate lighting, reasonable class size, and freedom from unnecessary interruptions are among the conditions essential to teaching success.

*Instructional supplies available in adequate amount and with consideration of the experiences to be given to pupils. (more effective use will be made of materials if teachers help to select or develop them).

*Bulletins and outlines of the program of study for both experienced and new teachers (such guideposts to instruction are helpful to pupils, parents, and the general public.)

*Pupil evaluation procedures which are clearly defined (For the best interest of all concerned, methods of evaluation of pupil progress should be mutually understood in the community by parents, teachers, and pupils.

*Parent contacts with classroom teacher for the guidance of children (worthwhile conferences requiring planning and sufficient time can be arranged best when classroom teachers, administrators, and parents work together). (5:1-6)

The Personnel Administrator

Specialization of the school personnel administrator or director is of relatively recent origin. The first such position was created in Dallas, Texas, in 1919. (6:62) Currently, it is estimated that there are over 1,000 positions of director of school personnel with full-fledged personnel departments and staffs. (2:1187-91). Of course, since districts employed head teachers, later to be called principals, there has been the assumption of personnel administration by someone in school systems. Probably the first to assume this function on a broad scale was the superintendent of schools. The function has in recent years been assumed by the superintendent and still is in small districts, or by an assistant superintendent in charge of personnel.

The need for school personnel offices arose from several emerging factors: (1) the increasing size of school districts, and the consequent increase in the size of the school staffs; (2) the proliferation of specialized positions in school systems; (3) the changing concepts of employer-employee relationships; and (4) the realization that the goals of an organization and of the people who serve it must be harmonized.

As school employees increased their preparation, they demanded to be treated as highly specialized professionals rather than as menials. These factors eventually led to establishment of the position of director (or assistant superintendent for personnel). As has usually been the case, when a new specialization within a profession develops, a professional association is created. The basic purpose of such professional associations is to advance the speciality and to improve the quality of the service of their members. The professional association now known as the American

Association of School Personnel Administrators was created in 1959. State affiliates followed, so that organization was strengthened and operates now on a highly professional plan.

PRINCIPLES OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Certain basic principles which should govern the administration of school personnel have developed over the years, and are now generally accepted.

1. The objectives of the school system can be realized only if staff members are carefully selected and treated in such a way that goodwill exists among the staff and administration.
2. There should be a carefully developed set of personnel policies, cooperatively developed with the staff, constantly refined, published, and distributed to members of the staff.
3. Personal considerations of the employee that have implications for the work he does are part of the problem of personnel administration.
4. The private life of the employee should not be involved, unless there is serious and direct interference with his work or conflict of interest.
5. The uniqueness of the individual should be respected and encouraged by personnel policies.
6. Esteem for the employee should be reflected in enlightened personnel policies and administration.
7. Two-way communication is essential to staff morale and effective educational program.
8. There should be continuous and cooperative evaluation of the effectiveness of employees.
9. Recognition and promotion are at the heart of good personnel administration.
10. Legally, the appointment of school personnel is a function of the school board. Actually, the

responsibility is almost universally, either by law or practice, vested in the superintendent of schools. In some states, the law provides that nominations for appointment be made by the superintendent of schools to the board. The board may reject specific nominations, but must rely upon the submission of new nominees by the superintendent. In these states, the board cannot legally make appointments except from the list of names submitted by the superintendent. In actual practice in most states, whether there is specific provision in the law for the superintendent to make nominations or not, the practice of relying upon the superintendent to make nominations is generally followed. If the school system has a personnel administrator, the superintendent receives recommendations and supporting data from the personnel administrator, who in turn has included the advice and counsel of principals, department heads and key teachers. The keys here are that the superintendent nominates and the school board elects. Trouble is imminent if the board employs anyone directly, except, of course, the superintendent.

FUNCTIONS OF THE PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATOR

Among the many functions which must be served by the personnel administrator (or whatever officer serves in that capacity), the following are major items:

1. To attain the goodwill and cooperation of the staff.
2. To develop job descriptions of all positions in the school system (certified and non-certified).
3. Identify all existing positions. and suggest those that need to be added as resources become available.
4. Classify and define positions.
5. Establish sources of recruitment of new employees.
6. Select the best from the available pool of candidates.
7. Develop techniques and means of selection (applications, interviews, tests, etc.).
8. Assign those selected to the right jobs in terms of their talents and characteristics.
9. Establish rules and policies designed to assure fairness to all employees.
10. Develop a means of continuing analysis of problems, their causes, and suggested solution.
11. Provide for orientation and special help for new employees.
12. Provide relevant professional development for all employees.
13. Help weak or borderline employees to make improvements.
14. Keep accurate records for recommendation purposes.
15. Evaluate effectiveness and report these data to the superintendent with recommendations.
16. Project the need for next year and future employment.

OBJECTIVES OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Personnel adminstration in any organization (industry or a profession) has two fundamental objecives or purposes: (1) to achieve the maximum effectiveness of the individual and (2) to achieve maximum effectiveness of the group involved. These purposes may be stated in another way: (1) achieving the goals of the workers, and (2) achieving the goals of the organization. The goals are co-equal; one cannot be obtained without the other. Maximum efficiency of the worker is achieved only when the individual views his work as an opportunity to achieve his own objectives. Good human relations is the essence good personnel administration. The slowness of the schools in developing adequate personnel policies and adminstrative procedures probably contribute significantly to turmoil in teaching and to the so-called teacher militancy.

The growth in size of school districts is another cause of teacher militancy. When school districts are small, informal approaches may be adequate. But not in large districts. Some indication of how school districts have increased in size can be gleaned from the fact that 40 years ago there were some 130,000 school districts in the United States. Currently, there are fewer than 17,000. Of course, the rapid growth in the nation's population and the urbanization ofthat population are significant factors in the increased size of districts. The larger the school district, the greater necessity to retain the human relations usually found in smaller districts.

PROJECTION OF PERSONNEL NEEDS

One of the major functions of personnel administration is to determine each year the number and types of positions which the school system will have to recruit and employ for the ensuing school year.

These needs must necessarily be considered in perspective with the competition for the services of teachers. Thus, the personnel administrator must keep abreast of the nationwide availability of teachers.

A number of factors enters into the existing supply of teachers. Preparation for teaching has consistently, over two decades or more, attracted about one-third of those graduating with the bachelor's degree each year. Had all those prepared for teaching each year taken jobs in the schools the ensuing fall, the surplus would have occurred much sooner, but each year, about one-third of all graduating teachers have not sought employment as teachers. They have taken jobs in industry, gone into military service, married, or gone on to graduate schools. By 1970, most of the factors influencing teacher availability were different than in the past. General unemployment has risen, the draft no longer has anything to do with college attendance and graduate scholoarships in teacher education are reduced. And to add to the decreasing demand for teachers, the declining birth rate since 1957 drastically reduced the annual increase in elementary school enrollments, thus materially reducing the number of new teachers to be hired each year to service increased enrollments. This trend is reversing itself in the 1980's. Another major factor influencing supply and demand is the refusal by teachers to serve in certain geographical locations, reducing drastically teacher mobility.

Thousands
STUDENTS ENROLLED
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11

Whatever the teacher supply-demand situation, the school personnel administrator is faced each spring with the necessity of calculating the number of new teachers he must be prepared to employ for the following September. What are the factors he must reckon with in such a calculation? The first major factor is normal turnover -- to accept other teaching jobs, to leave teaching to accept other employment, to return to college for additional preparation, or for marriage and family. The second major factor is retirement. The third is the number of teachers to be added to handle increased enrollment in the school system. The fouth is the number of new teachers needed to reduce the overload of present staff. The fifth factor is the number of new teachers needed for new curriculum programs to be added to the offerings of the school district. These factors may be expressed in terms of a mathematical formula as follows:

> $TO + R + IE + RO + NC = X$, in which TO = turnover; R = retirement; IE = increased enrollments; RO = reduced overload; NC = new curriculum offerings; X = total new teachers that must be recruited and employed.

To apply the formula, assume an existing staff of 1000 presently employed by the school district. The application of the formula would approximate the following:

1. Figure normal turnover at 10 percent (national average), unless the district had kept precise records for the past several years and can derive its own turnover rate..100

2. Number reaching retirement age. This can be determined from personnel records. A reasonable general average for the nation is estimated at about 5 percent..50

3. Number needed to reduce overload of teachers. This will depend upon the extent of the overload and the ability of the district to pay for additional staff. Assume an average of about 2 percent..20

4. Number needed to serve increased enrollment. This can be rather precisely calculated from the district's census reports (except in boom areas, where the general population is increasing rapidly). This could be a minus factor if the enrollment is declining. For the purpose of example, assume plus 2 percent..20

5. Number needed for curriculum additions (such as kindergarten, nursery schools, and the academic and special fields). Again, an estimate average is 1 percent..10

Total number of teachers that must be recruited and employed..200

Of course, the above formula will not hold true as to numbers for any particular school district. It can serve as a guideline, with such adjustments as local factors will dictate. Also, the type of school organization (team teaching, non-graded schools, differentiated staffing, etc.) and the extent of the use of technology will affect the formula.

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

There are several ways of categorizing school personnel. One that is commonly used is to classify school staff personnel as:

1. Certified-professional

2. Non-certified--non-professional

The professional personnel may be sub-divided as follows:

*Classroom teachers -- self contained or team approaches

*Administrative -- superintendent, assistant superintendent, principals, directors

*Special school service or auxillary personnel (professional people who do not do classroom teaching, but assist the total school program) -- supervisors (subject and area, or special and general), counselors, attendance officers, directors of instruction or curriculum, school librarian, school nurse, school physician, school dental hygienist, therapist, school psychologist, etc.

Non-professional, non-certified, are those employees not involved directly and specifically in instruction, but carry important responsibilities for the maintenance and operation of the school system -- bus drivers, custodians, food service workers, clerical workers, maintenance workers.

All of these positions must be classified and job descriptions written for each by the personnel office.

In writing job description for classroom teachers the following performance activities must be considered: (1) classroom instruction, (2) individual pupil consultation and guidance, (3) effective communication, (4) professional participation, (5) self criticism and analysis.

Classroom instruction would include extent and quality of basic preparation; degree to which knowledge is current and abreast of developments; evidence of planning and good organization; rapport with pupils; recognition of difference and interests of pupil; extent to which instructional techniques are resourceful and challenging.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF TEACHERS

There are several means which the personnel administrator may use in recruiting new teachers for his school system: applications received through the mail or in person; college placement agencies; professional association placement agencies; commercial placement agencies; the local student teaching program, conducted in cooperation with a nearby college or university; visits to college and university campuses to interview likely candidates.

Perhaps the most commonly used source of teacher recruitment is the college placement service. Over the years, a given school district tends to rely heavily upon nearby colleges and their placement agencies. Lists of qualified candidates are received from these placement agencies and subsequent visits are made to the respective campus for interviews. A number of teachers are recruited by any good-sized school district through unsolicited applications. Careful screening of these may yield a good number of qualified applicants. Many state education associations and state departments of education maintain placement services, as a service both to their members and to the school districts. Some of these are not really placement agencies but simply a registration of candidates with details of their qualifications, and a listing of position vacancies filed by personnel administrators. The function served here is to bring together those looking for jobs and those wanting to hire teachers.

Commercial teacher agencies have a real function to perform in matching teachers looking for employment outside their states of residence with job vacancies. Their services were used during periods of widespread teacher shortages, but not so extensively as college placement agencies. Under certain conditions, the U.S. Employment Service also serves as a medium.
An important source of teacher recruitment is the student teaching program, where the local school district serves as a training station for one or more colleges and universities. The period of student teaching provides an excellent opportunity for local supervisors and principals to evaluate the success the student teachers obtain; and a first hand opportunity is presented to recruit the most successful of

the group. Perhaps the most effective device is for the personnel administrator and his staff to visit the teacher placement offices of colleges and universities, where they will have the opportunity for personal interviews with qualified candidates for teaching positions. Still another source is the recommendation of canidates by members of the professional staff of the school district. As a general rule, most staff members will know graduating teachers who are looking for employment. In many of these instances these staff members will know in some measure the family background and educational qualifications of those they recommend. This proces has the added advantage of involving the local staff in the selection and recruitment of their future colleagues.

Instruments of Recruitment

Among the instruments the personnel administrator will use in recruiting new teachers are: credentials (transcripts, kind of certificate held, biographical data); letters of recommendation; application form; interviews; visitations; tests to establish an eligibility list. The tests commonly used for establishing elegibility are the National Teacher Examination and the Graduate Record Examination. In recent years certain groups have vehemently protested the use of these devices as discriminatory.

Orientation System

An integral part of a good recruitment and employment program is to plan effective orientation procedures for new teachers. An example is a buddy system by which experienced members of the staff are asked to serve as a buddy for each new teacher, as a guide to community and school mores and constant counselor for problems that develop during the first year of teaching. Care in assigning new teachers to positions and buildings according to the qualifications, qualities, and interests of each is very important to successful personnel administration. All too often, new teachers are assigned the less desirable positions, those that the experienced members of the staff do not want. This creates a morale problem for the new teacher who is unable to cope with the position assigned, and quite frequently leads to the young teacher quitting the profession. Studies have revealed that the first five years are the years of great attrition among teachers. To be sure, there is a morale problem with teachers who year after year are required to continue in the toughest positions in the school system. This is a problem for which there are no easy answers. But careful, thorough orientation and in-service programs can be helpful.

The good orientation program will provide pre-school

general sessions in which all teachers meet in their assigned buildings to be briefed on the school system philosophy, general rules and regulations, personnel policies, school calendar, and the school day. Also, orientation sessions include building assignments, specific duties and responsibilities, handling of grievances, community mores, grading system, and rules for student discipline. Of course, in small school sytems a general session to serve the needs of all the system's staff is possible, instead of building by building meetings. Cooperatively planned in-service programs are helpful throughout the year. These should be included in the calendar of events and should be within the regular working hours of the day or days.

TEACHER EVALUATION

The evaluation of teacher performance in an inescapable responsibility of school administration. The public demands some appraisal of the performance of the school staff, as a measure of efficiency, and assurance that high quality education is being furnished to children. Also, the administrator must be in a position to: (1) determine those to receive promotions; (2) determine those to be released at the end of the probationary period; (3) determine those to be moved from probationary status to tenure or continuing status; (4) and above all, to seek continual improvement in the instructional program.

At this point, it is essential to get a clear definition of teacher evaluation -- so many confuse the term with merit rating.

Teacher evaluation (or appraisal of performance) is to improve the performance in the classroom of the individual teacher. This is often confused with the rating of teachers, of comparing the performance of one teacher with another to determine pay scales. Rating is involved in evaluation, but the comparison is not with other teachers but with a given teacher's own potential.
Its sole purpose should be the continual improvement of the performance in the classroom. Teachers, generally, do not object to evaluation, but they vigorously oppose rating.

Frequency and Scale of Evaluation

Studies by NEA indicate that (1) probationary teachers are more likely to be given formal evaluation than continuing teachers; (2) elementary school teachers are more likely to be formally evaluated than high school teachers; (3) in districts with formal plans, most teachers are evaluated once a year; (4) probationary teachers are evaluated, typically, two times a year; (5) in the largest systems, continuing contract teachers are evaluated less than once a year.

Responsibility for Evaluation

Every school system should establish definite criteria for evaluating good teaching. Unless there are guidelines to define or determine what is considered good teaching, confusion and uncertainty exists between the evaluator and the individual teacher.

The appraisal of teaching performance should be a cooperative process. The staff should participate in the widest possible manner in developing a program of evaluation. Professional organizations should also be involved in the development of such a program. Above all, the teacher being evaluated should be involved. Every teacher should be furnished a copy of his written evaluation and given an opportunity to react to it. Before any written evaluation should go into a teacher's file, he should know its contents and have the right of appeal if he considers the report unfair. Probationary teachers should be given special consideration.

Practices Involved in Evaluation

Among the many facets of the process of evaluation are the following:

1. Conferences with the teacher
2. Observing the teacher in the classroom
3. Gathering impressions of the teacher from observations outside the classroom
4. Gathering impressions of the teacher from contacts with pupils outside the classroom
5. Studying pupil achievement records

6. Studying office records kept on each teacher

7. Taking notes on what parents say

The Evaluation Process

The evaluation process should be kept simple. Excessive paper work is likely to defeat objectives of the process. There are four major tasks to be acomplished: (1) establishing performance targets, (2) working with the teacher, (3) appraising the teacher, and (4) planning the future. A limited number of targets should be chosen, with consensus between teacher and evaluator.

TRENDS

Certain trends, now clearly discernible, will tend to influence great changes in school personnel policies. The steady development of a spirit of professionalism among teachers is one important factor. This is leading to a diminution of reliance upon traditional authority and increasing reliance upon policies based upon knowledge and respect for the school staff.

Teachers are now demanding and getting greater voice in decision and policy making. Professional negotiation, which has been adopted widely in recent years is having a great influence in mutual consideration of problems and differences.

The trend in school administration, likewise, is toward more rational and collegial relationships.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Well informed personnel are the key to mutual understanding in the educational enterprise. The eye of the public keeps a constant vigil on the school system and each and every individual attached to it. The capacity level makes no difference. The public expects those charged with the education of their children to conduct themselves beyond reproach at all times. The following guidelines for teachers can be applied to most school personnel regardless of hierarchy -- from custodian to superintendent:

*Public attitudes toward education and my school are influenced by what I do and say.

*When my work as teacher is well done, my school public relation is well begun.

*In my participation in a community activity I am building lay understanding of teachers and education.

*Public relaions is a two-way process. Laymen learn from teachers and teachers learn from laymen.

*When patrons and other laymen understand and have faith in education, there can be no serious problems of adequate financial support.

Teachers may ask themselves:

*Are my teachings reflected in the lives of my pupils in the community?

*Does my own conduct bear evidence that education ennobles and enriches our daily lives?

*Am I friendly toward my neighbors and welcome at community gatherings?

*Do I help with community improvement projects and am I active in some non-teacher group in the community?

*Do I use the advice of laymen in improving and enriching my instructional program?

*Do I assist my local teachers group in fulfilling its public relations obligation?

Teachers' Role in School-Community Relations

1. Recognition of the responsibility on their part to create public understanding.

2. High quality teaching.

3. Establishment of cordial and friendly relations with the pupils that will lead both to the progress of the pupils as well as to long range cordial relations with the community in general.

4. Establishment of cordial and friendly relationships with the parents, and with the community. (4:314-338)

McCloskey says "A first step is for teachers to recognize the need for, values of, widespread public understanding and its relationship to adequate education. Since adequate support for schools and the effectiveness of education depend on public understanding, teachers have a reason to accept a share of responsibility for creating it." (4:316)

Recognizing the need for creating public understanding does not in any sense mean that communication should be viewed as a substitute for good teaching. Successful public relations must be founded upon an outstanding and dynamic educational program. Production necessarily precedes salesmanship and the teacher's product is clearly defined in terms of doing a first rate job of instruction, prefatory to arousing public confidence and participation.

Relationships between teachers and pupils have steady and far-reaching influence on public understanding. Continually pupils convey impressions about schools directly to parents and each year a considerable percent of all pupils leave school and enter the adult world, where with opinions and votes they support, neglect or oppose public education.

GOOD
SCHOOL
PRACTICES

The establishment of cordial and friendly relationships with the parents is one of primary importance for good school-community relations. This could be more friendly and informal parent-teacher conferences, group meetings, home room conferences, home visitations and the like. In all these activities, it is very essential that the teachers take care to plan carefully and make the parents feel at home, and gain their fullest cooperation without alienating them. For this, tact and understanding as well as willingness to cooperate with the parents are very essential on the part of the teachers.

Apart from teachers, school counselors do have a big responsibility in creating good school-community relations. School counselors, because of their continuous personal contact with students, parents, school personnel and the general public, can and should play a key role in the more informal aspects of the public relations program.

The substitute teacher is another important link in the chain of good school-community relations. His is one of the toughest jobs in any school. This is true when the regular teacher has done little or nothing to smooth the way for the substitute or where the principal and the rest of the staff seem indifferent to the fact that a substitute is even present. In situations like this, chances are that he will tell his friends and neighbors about it. Therefore, the treatment of substitute teachers on the part of the regular staff of the school could lead to positive or negative effects in the school's public relations program.

All these personnel are forceful agents in maintaining good school-community relations. The use of personal contact through personnel can be one of the most effective media used in developing such relationships. Therefore, it behooves the administrator to structure his public relations program so that it starts with the internal organization.

EVALUATION OF PERSONNEL SERVICES

An instrument for the evaluation of personnel services is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services (3) is composed of criteria divided into four major topics: general criteria; policies of organization; staff development; and functions of the personnel administrator. The instrument is designed for self evaluation, evaluation by consultants or guidelines for establishing personnel services policies.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for PERSONNEL SERVICES

1. Assume that you are superintendent of your school system. Describe the objectives that you feel are appropriate for the personnel policies of a K-12 school district with 12,000 students? What major implications will these have for the way your school district operates?

2. Assume, as superintendent, that you wish to introduce a comprehensive program of personnel evaluation. What are the different categories of personnel you will need to evaluate? To what extent will you use a common system to evaluate these personnel? To what extent will you differentiate among them? How often and when will you evaluate personnel in each of the categories?

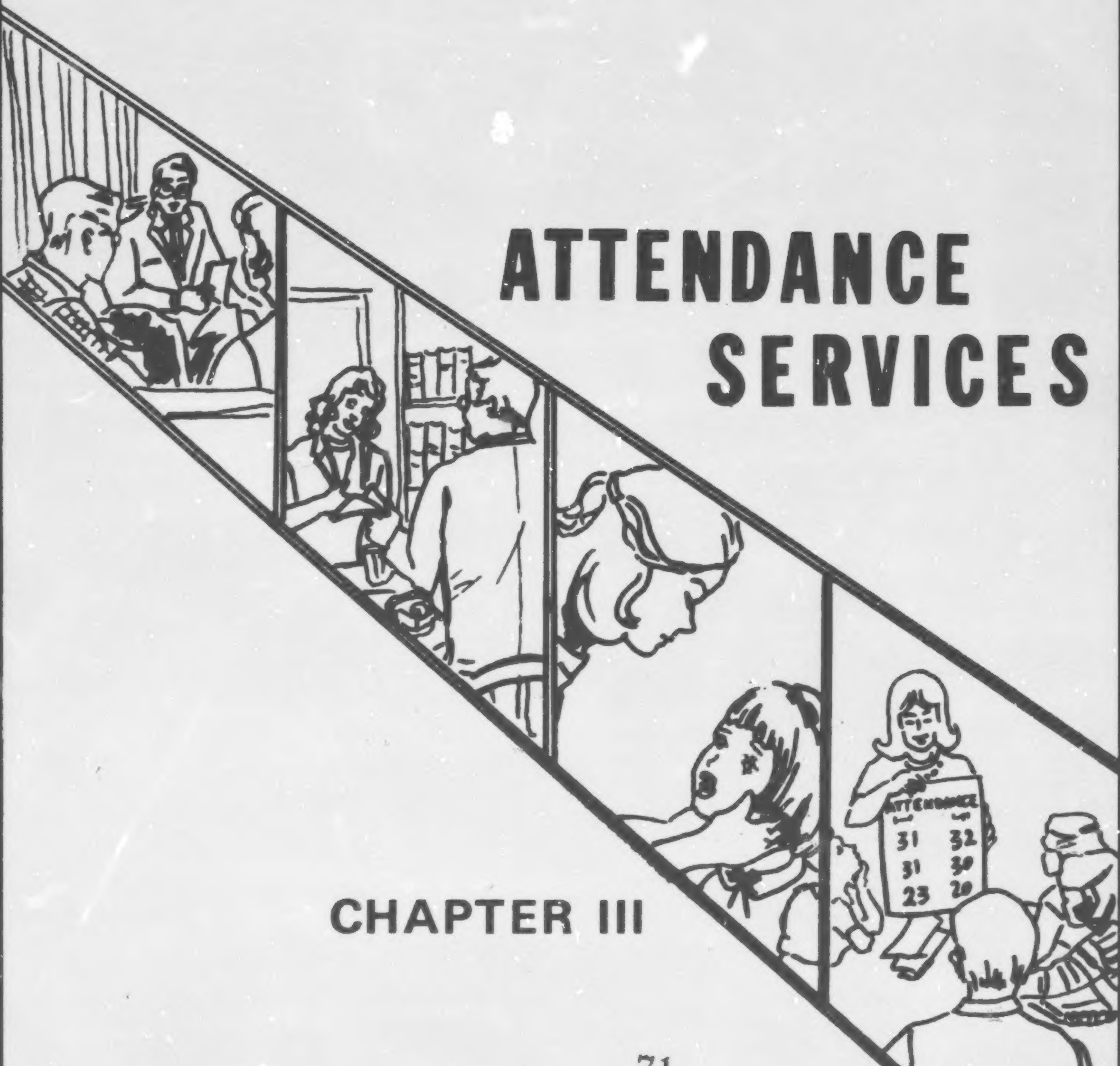
3. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of using detailed rating forms in contrast to open-ended evaluations.

4. What steps can you take in your personnel program to ensure continuity from one period in time to the next?

5. How can subordinate administrators be used to assist you in personnel evaluation?

6. Identify five or more major concepts about personnel services.

ATTENDANCE SERVICES


ATTENDANCE
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CHAPTER III

ATTENDANCE SERVICES

A casual observer can spend a few hours in a school and fairly accurately assess whether or not students would strive to be in attendance regularly. The atmosphere of happiness, purposeful procedures, comprehensiveness of the program, student activities, attitude of teachers and other personnel, and the general rapport are evident. In school, the positive approach to school attendance is in operation as opposed to the regulatory, "take it or leave it" attitude. With this concept in mind, the following treatise of the organization and administration of school attendance services is presented.

MOTIVATION FOR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

While there are compulsory school laws, there is no guarantee of universal compliance by pupils. School officials must find ways of motivating pupils to be in regular attendance. Individual conferences should be held with pupils who show evidence of poor attendance, in which the relationships of regular attendance to school success are quietly and sincerely discussed. Another method commonly used is for the principal's office to call the absent pupil's home soon after absence is noted to ascertain whether there is a valid reason for the absence. The child, if ill, will feel rewarded by the friendly call. The truant-prone pupil knows that his parents will know immediately if he is not in school. The parent should appreciate this concern by the school. Many believe that the single most effective approach to building regular attendance is a relevant, challenging and interesting school curriculum. The new emphasis upon career, vocational and technical education should have positive impact for curriculum improvement. Some suggested approaches are: offer special courses which may be elected by the disinterested pupil; involve students in decision making in matters primarily concerning them; improve guidance services which can direct students to their areas of special interests and aptitudes; evaluate the student on the basis of his talents, not comparing him with others; institute remedial programs, especially reading. Poor reading habits and ability surely would rank high among the cause of pupil dropouts. In addition, the school system should make special provision for pupils who are unable to profit from regular academic training.

In a few cases, steps must be taken to exempt certain students from formal instruction. It falls to the attendance worker to supply the necessary data on forms signed by recognized authorities, such as medical doctors and others, and submit these to the appropriate state authority, who under the law, may grant the child exemption from the cumpulsory attendance laws. Current mainstreaming in special education mandate that all but extreme cases must be included in regular classes. The local school is the agency for issuing employment certificates. The local school labor departments are charged with enforcement of the statutes regarding employment of school-age children. (8:389)

THE SCHOOL DROPOUT

Closely allied to the problem of truancy is that of the school dropout. Most of these are pupils who have reached the maximum age of school attendance required by law. Legally, in such cases, this problem is not the sole responsibility of attendance personnel. But the school does have a responsibility to diagnose the reasons for school dropouts and seek to modify school programs to prevent such occurrences in the future. Evidence, before the dropout occurs, piles up and is rather easily recognized. Some of the factors involved in such evidence are: unexcused absences, excessive tardiness, lack of self-confidence, poor work in classes, failure to participate in class work, and failure to pass required courses.

A few major factors have been suggested as the cause of dropouts: (1) low scholastic aptitude, (2) poor reading ability, (3) inadequate school curriculum, (4) non-participation in extra-curricular activities, (5) transient status, (6) poor home conditions, (7) lack of money, (8) poor health, (9) marriage, (10) negative attitude of parents toward schools.

THE ENFORCEMENT OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

One of the profound changes in school attendance enforcement that has taken place in recent years is a diminution of emphasis upon the police power of the state to impose fines and other penalities on parents not sending their children to school. Presently, more and more, the schools are putting great emphasis on searching out the causes of non-attendance and correcting those, rather that searching for additional punitive measures.

Today, attendance officers (now commonly called home and school visitors), are more concerned with the educational, psychological, medical, and social problems and needs of children than they are with the bare facts of non-attendance. (2:362)

The next development was a serious study of the problems which disclosed that truancy and non-attendance simply reflected other problems; hence the child was referred for diagnosis and treatment. Quite often such diagnoses uncovered frustrations and fears of the truant child. Sometimes, environmental conditions at home were responsible. Still another approach was preventative and sought to remove all conditions leading to non-attendance. This often required school programs to be overhauled in order to be better adapted to the needs and interests of children. Finally, the teamwork approach was developed. This means close cooperation of the principal and teachers, together with that of guidance and clerical personnel.

Over the years, there has been a wide range of approaches to curing school non-attendance. One of these was the primitive approach, which included strict enforcement of legal penalties to enforce attendance and often forcibly brought children to school. This was succeeded by a casual approach in which truancy symbolized other problems which required diagnosis and treatment. These two approaches led to two others: the authoritative and the preventative, in which emphasis was upon removing conditions which contributed to non-attendance. Finally, the teamwork concept appeared involving close cooperation of teachers with other personnel. (12:259)

The administrator, of course, has a large role to play in solving non-attendance problems. One writer suggests two relevant concepts. One is the functional and the other is diagnostic. The first is to install an environmental relationship instead of the negative relationship with the problem child. This is designed to help the truant child to experience new and constructive ways of conducting himself. The diagnostic concept is to seek means of increasing the truant child's ego status. This approach seeks to discover what influences will have a positive effect in including better attitudes and motivations for school attendance. (12:264)

School administrators in many states are especially concerned with high percentages of attendance because state financial support is based upon this factor.

ROLE OF ATTENDANCE PERSONNEL

Always, satisfactory attendance rests upon a dual responsibility--that of the school and the community. In larger school districts, there usually will be attendance directors and officers. In smaller districts, this responsibility will rest almost altogether with the individual school principal.

Whoever has the responsibility, the following functions must be served:

1. Determining causes of absence by means of interviews at home and at school
2. Liaison between home and school
3. Liaison between school and law enforcement agencies
4. Intensive case work on social and emotional problems
5. Liaison with other social agencies in the community
6. Interpreting the program to the community (10:344)

The attendance director in large school systems is usually responsible for planning the administration of attendance services. Involving perhaps as many as a dozen separate functions, he oversees the total attendance program. Certainly, a key to good attendance programs is enlightened attendance officers. These officers may retain the traditional police powers, but increasingly turn to other means of achieving school attendance. They recognize that non-attendance, as a general rule, is a symptom of the truant's problem. In pursuing this approach to correcting the situation, they draw upon the services of other pupil personnel staff to seek out the causes of truancy and continue planning a program of treatment and correction. The attendance officer has certain legal duties he must carry out, such as: to check every child to see if he is (a) attending school, (b) attending a parochial or private school, (c) receiving instruction at home, or (d) whether the child is exempt from compulsory attendance under state law. (4:73)

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

In smaller school districts, the principal must assume responsibility for the administration of attendance services. These duties generally include: (1) checking of daily attendance; (2) conducting school census if required by law; (3) establishing safeguards for re-entry of pupils after periods of absences; (4) developing case-study techniques of home and community factors and personnel, as well as aiding school specialists to discover causes of non-attendance. (7:729)

The principal must be sensitive to the individual and collective needs of the students. He must provide leadership in making necesary changes in his school to satisfy these needs, which may include extra, as well as curricular matters. He must be available for personal consultation with the students and project an image of advocate for their interests.

ROLE OF TEACHERS

Th importance of the individual teacher in attaining school attendance cannot be overstated. He has to keep the attendance records, know who is a absent, and quickly sense developing truancy behavior of students. He knows the rules and practices of his school district. To put it in a sentence: A good teacher is the key to good attendance. He arouses interest. He stimulates curiosity. He encourages student participation in the total school program. His teaching personality, the methods he uses, and his zeal to see that each child succeeds in some measure every school day -- these are the keystones of good attendance records.

Yeager records the following list of duties of teachers in regard to attendance: (a) determine causes of non-attendance; (b) analyze behavior difficulty; (c) act in an advisory capacity with staff members to secure proper pupil adjustment; (d) handle all referred cases; (e) make referrals to school and community agencies; (f) participate in legal proceedings; (g) conduct needed research. (12:264)

An increasing number of districts are employing visiting teachers whose sole function is to visit homes of truant students and seek to ascertain why they are absent from school. Also, teacher aides and volunteer services should free the teacher for individual attention to students and to implement individualized instruction.

This is really a shift away from the truant-officer, police-power kind of attendance enforcement, to a search for the real psychological, emotional, and physical reasons why children find it unpleasant to attend school. The visiting teacher seeks the root causes and refers the remedy to the appropriate school personnel. The school nurse has a similar function in cases of absences due to illnesses. Most important of all in solving school non-attendance problems are the parents. Much of the school personnel efforts are directed toward working closely with parents to remove unfavorable factors to school attendance. Parents must be convinced that each day's absence from school adds to the child's chances of failure, of falling behind the class to the extent of becoming discouraged, and the longer the absences continue, the greater the chances of the child becoming a dropout.

PUPIL ACCOUNTING

The school census (usually taken annually, although there are some exceptions) is at the heart of proper pupil accounting. The census is essential to enforcement of school attendance. The census is basic to good projection for the school system. The number of teachers to be employed, housing, supplies, planning new transportation routes, estimating new building needs, and the identification of needed special services - all are derived from the school census. (8:386)

The enumeration of children of pre-school age is necessary as a basis for planning future needs of the district in terms of curriculum, buildings, and teachers. The visiting teacher or attendance case worker has an important responsibility. From the data derived daily by the school system, he transfers information to individual cards, which form the basis of interviews with parents. He must enlist the sympathetic cooperation of the truant's parents. When a given child's problems are identified, it is the case worker's task to seek to solve them. It is often necessary to refer his cases to specialists who work in or with the school district. Specialists such as physicians, psychologists, school social workers, or speech teachers can provide expertise which the attendance worker may not have.

Also, it is essential for the attendance department to maintain close working relationships with a cluster of public service agencies, such as the probation officers, police and welfare department. Certain civic organizations can provide assistance, such as Boys Club, Girls Club, YMCA, Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and church groups.

The computer system has become an integral tool in pupil accounting and data processing.

REPORTING OF ABSENCES

A widely used plan for quick reporting of student absences daily is for each teacher to report all absences to the central office after his first class. From these lists is compiled a master list which is distributed to all teachers. New absences during succeeding classes during the day are reported period by period. The system must be adapted to the organization pattern, such as open concept, nongraded, and self-contained classrooms.

The matter of excusing absences presents some vexing problems. Most absences probably result from illness. Generally, pupils are required to bring a note from their parents stating the reason for absence from school. The big problem here is that pupils sign these notes, either because the parents are not available or the pupil doesn't want his parents to know about the absence. Some authorities advocate that notes signed by either a parent or the pupil be accepted and that the first period teacher be authorized for readmitting the student. The reasons for the latter step are that it would relieve overcrowding in the principal's office during the first period of the school day, and that the teacher is in the best position to judge the validity of the excuse.

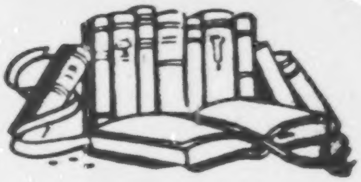
HISTORY OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

In colonial America, Massachusetts was the first to pass a compulsory school law of sorts in 1642. The law required the selectmen of each town to see that their brethren neighbors taught, or had others teach, children to read and to gain thereby a knowledge of the laws and the scriptures.

The free public schools in the United States developed largely in the period from 1820 to 1850. Horace Mann was instrumental in persuading Massachusetts to pass the first compulsory education law in 1852. This law required attendance of children at public school unless equal provision for their education was made elsewhere. The post Civil War Period was fruitful for the passage of such laws, and by 1918 all of the states had such laws. With the coming of school integration, however, two states (Mississippi and South Carolina) in 1955 repealed their compulsory attendance laws; and Virginia changed its statutes to make compulsory school attendance an option of local governments. Thus, presently, at least three states do not have state-wide compulsory school attendance laws. (11:1-3)

The movement to end child labor contributed significantly to compulsory school attendance. The Factory Act of 1833, in England, prohibited the employment of children under nine years of age, and their employment required a document signed by a school head certifying to minimum schooling. Later, organized labor was instrumental in pushing the compulsory age of attendance into the high schools to prevent competition of youth with adult laborers for jobs.

The Massachusetts Law of 1852 required a minimum of twelve weeks of school attendance per year. This minimum was gradually increased throughout the country so that by 1869-70, the average length of the school term was 132 days; by 1929-30, the average length of the school term had increased to 173 days; and by 1959-60 to 178 days. The rapid increase in public and non-public school attendance was even more dramatic. In 1889-90, the percentage of the school age population, 14-17 years of age (high school years) who were in school was 6.7. This figure increased steadily until 1963-64, the percentage of the total high school age population who were in school was 93.5.



To take a short cross section of years, the projected increase in school attendance is dramatic.

Year(19-)	Enrollments			Total
	Kindergarten Elementary	High School	Higher Education	
70-71	36,409,000	14,961,000	7,105,000	58,475,000
85-86	46,586,000	16,999,000	11,575,000	75,159,000

(5:11)

For the first time since 1943-44, enrollment in elementary and secondary school declined in the fall of 1972 due to a declining birth rate. Enrollments decreased from 46.1 million to 45.8 million students. Since that time enrollments have continued to decrease on the national scene, though population shifts are still causing enrollments to expand in some parts of the nation. Experts disagree about whether or not enrollments will continue to decline in the next decades.

Although all states have passed compulsory school attendance laws (and three states have repealed such laws), the question naturally arises as to why a nation which prizes and encourages individual initiative and independence would submit to the legal regimentation of its children.

The answer is that it did not submit quickly or easily. We had no public school systems before 1820; the Federal Consititution does not mention education (thus leaving the matter to the states); and only the constitutions of seven of the sixteen states that formed the new nation in 1789 even mentioned education. As a matter of fact, the idea and acceptance of publicly supported schools had its origin in locally founded schools in the colonies, supported by public subscriptions.

Also, the Northwest Ordinance of 1785 enunciated the principle very clearly: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." This was the Ordinance created by the Continental Congress, and the statement above (Article 3) set aside one section in each township of yet unsettled lands for the support of schools. (11:2-4)

Throughout United States history, the control of education and the schools has to a great extent been a function of the local community in response to authority delegated by the states. Using the Tenth Amendment's "residual powers", the several states have assumed both responsibility for and power over the public schools. The principle of local control has continued to become more and more deeply entrenched in the minds of the American public. (1:55)

Throughout the years, considerate legislation ameliorated the compulsory school idea, making it more acceptable to the people. One of the early problems to arise was the question of whether attendance at religious schools satisfied the compulsory nature of state laws. The U.S.

Supreme Court ruled that, if proper standards were enforced by the state, attendance at religious schools satisfied the compulsory attendance feature.

Then the Kalamazoo Decision in 1872 ruled that school taxes could be used to support high schools, as a part of the system of "common schools", further expanding education and enlarging enrollments. In some states legislation will permit a parent to teach his child, under prescribed conditions. A recent court decision in one state permitted children of Amish parents to end the compulsory provision at the end of the elementary school grades, since this limitation had been a tradition of these people for many years.

SCHOOL LEGISLATION

Laws affecting school attendance are constantly changing through legislation at all levels of legal jurisdictions. With the advent of continually growing numbers of complex regulations, principally from the federal level, court decisions are of great concern to administrators. As more control is wrested from local authorities with threats of punitive measures, it behooves the administrator to keep himself informed, lest he entangle himself and the board of education in litigation. While it may be the obligation of the citizenry to control, through their influence on state and national law makers, to preserve local control of schools, it is even more important for the administrator to follow the letter and spirit of the laws currently in effect.

Although publications such as state bulletins once were sufficient as a guide, change is much faster than the revision of such references. Therefore, a new system of "keeping up" with change must be a part of the procedures within the administrator's domain. It is desirable practice of good administrators to subscribe to weekly, monthly, and sometimes daily supplements and summaries of new regulations, statutes, and court decisions which may affect policy and/or procedure. These should not be filed in an obscure place. They should be read, underscored, noted, etc. When applicable, copies should be distributed to personnel concerned with relevant situations. Probably the board of education should have copies forwarded to each of them. There is a wide variety of these publications and references. Some are listed here as examples. (11) (13)

If a school district is too small or financially unable to have legal counsel on a retainer basis, cooperative arrangements should be made for quick advice. Of course, the proper procedure is to anticipate problem areas and develop policies in advance. However, as any practical administrator knows, the coverage of all contingencies is improbable, if not impossible.

Why emphasize this area, which overlaps all topics in this text, in "Attendance Services"? It would probably fit as well in the preceding chapter on "Personnel Services". Perhaps the answer lies in the probability of liability and litigation. The human element and use of judgement creates "gray areas". This is most likely to happen in dealing with regulations concerning attendance and all the implications thereof. Although due proces has current or new interpretations, actually it has always been in effect. Currently, the interpretation and strict application are magnified ten-fold. Another example is recent court decisions which hold individual board members liable in certain circumstances, whereas in the past it was believed only the board as a whole could be sued and even then only by consent of the legislature. The 1970's have brought forth complicated changes. Hopefully, the 1980's will bring more stability and only that change which promotes progress in educational improvement.

EDUCATION AND THE LABOR MARKET

One of the issues that developed alongside compulsory education was child labor. In time, this became a hot social issue, especially with the rise of the factory system. England was the first industrial nation to attack this problem, resulting from the emergence of certain illness in the cotton mills. The first factory act was passed in England in 1833, prohibiting the employment of children under nine years of age in certain types of industries.

In the United States, the first such act was passed in Massachusetts in 1866, in which a minimum employment age was set at ten years; and school attendance for six months a year was a prerequisite for employment between ages 10 and 14.

In fact, there seems to be a trend among the industrialized nations both to lower and raise the age limits of compulsory education. The United Nations, in 1963, reported a total of 29 countries with a lower age limit of 14 for employment; 27 with age 10, and 17 with age 15. The school-leaving age in England was raised from 14 to 15 in 1957. It appears that this age may eventually be raised to 18 and 20 in some countries. Supply in the labor force and economic ability to support education are the key two factors. At the same time, there are demands in the United States to lower the beginning of compulsory school attendance to four years of age. (3:94-95)

With the growth of junior colleges, the increase in school attendance - although it will be voluntary at that level, as well as below six in most instances - apparently will continue to increase. (3:96-97)

This appears to be the prospect of the future. But it should be mentioned that with all the student unrest on campuses in recent years, there are growing demands, also, that the upper age limits on compulsory attendance be lowered.

THEORY OF NON-COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES
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Compulsory school attendance, generally from age six through the high school years or some fixed age - such as 16 - has been encompassed in the laws of states, most of which were enacted prior to 1900.

But events of recent years, such as the riots and disturbances on college campuses and in high schools in the late 60's and early 70's have compelled the American people to take another look at these laws and wonder if compulsory attendance over so long period is still necessary.

Also, a decision of the United States Supreme Court in May, 1972, upholding a decision of the Wisconsin Supreme Court in exempting Amish children above the eighth grade from the compulsory school law of that state, gave another push to this reexamination of the age brackets of the compulsory principle. Johnson has stated the following questions involved in this reexamination:

1. To what extent does our society with its advanced technology . . . require compulsory attendance?
2. To what extent are existing compulsory school laws enforced and is enforcement a reasonable expectation in our kind of society?
3. Is the repeal, or drastic altering, of compulsory school laws sufficient or do the

social expectations which caused these laws to be enacted also need to be examined in light of changing conditions?

4. What changes should be considered as we move toward a more voluntary format? (9:226-232)

This discussion does not deal with the repeal of all compulsory school attendance laws, but to what extent should they be amended?

The American people virtually unanimously agree with compulsory attendance through the elementary school years. The disagreements arise over forced attendance in junior and senior high schools, particularly the latter. Those questioning forced schooling beyond the elementary school, do so largely on the grounds that our advanced technolgy and economy, basically, require knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic for survival of the individual. These can all be inculcated to a practical degree during the elementary school years. Thousands of jobs exist in our economy which can be filled by elementary school graduates.

One of the great handicaps to revision of our compulsory attendance laws is that it has become customary for employers to require high school graduation. This custom has often been based soley on percentage and not necessity. This custom developed, in large part, by pressures to keep down the size of our employment force. Thus, thousands of employees are filling jobs for which their high school and college educations are not needed.

In recent years, the attendance at academic high schools has decreased by about 8 percent, absenteeism is on the increase, and so is the dropout rate. In many places, the problem of enforcing school attendance has become extremely difficult if not impossible.

What is the answer to this dilemma? First, there appears to be little doubt that rigid compulsory attendance beyond a certain age or grade level will be revised. Second, the junior and senior high school will still be here for those who want and need to attend. This means the problem of increasing the holding power of schools is up to the teachers and the revision of curricula to meet the pressing, life needs of students.

More and more high schools are turning to the career education concept, that of giving a portion of the day to the academics and at least half of the day to exploring vocational and technical experiences. Through this adjustment (in part, at least) students can find what they believe they need most, instead of all being forced into one (academic) curriculum. In other words, as one study puts it, the nation does not need laws that force adolescents to go to school. It needs schools and school-related programs that make adolescents wish to come.

SCHOOL - PARENT - STUDENT - COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

The positive attitude about school attendance involves the total environments, especially people. The target, of course, is the child. When all factors are working favorably, children will be motivated, even inspired, to attend school regularly.

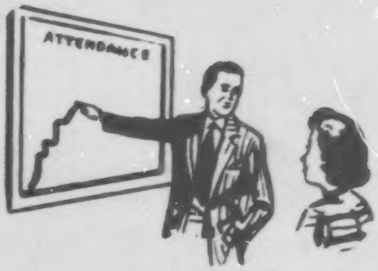
The beginning is the parent, even before the child is of school age. Positive attitudes are learned by communication and examples. If the parents care, if the school and community care, school is an attractive place for students of all ages.

This is why it is so important for an abundance of two-way communication to exist between all parties involved. The school must take the initiative to secure the confidence and cooperation needed. This includes dissemination of information and the use of all resources available in the home and community.

Beginning with the viable program which relates to the child's needs, he in turn will express his satisfaction at home. Students are messengers, even ambassadors of good school-parent-community relations. The attitude is contagious. A sense of well-being prevails and each exciting day at school becomes the conversation in the home and community. Good teachers conduct their classes each day not as a conclusion, rather as an unfinished task to be continued tomorrow. The end of the class or day usually ends at a high point of interest. "What did you learn at school today?", is a usual first question as the child arrives home. The school personnel should assure that he has a good answer. After this question is answered, the real test of the positive attitude toward school is if the child then says, "And tomorrow . . ."

Working coordinately, the attendance concept can be one of the most effective public relations forces for the schools. Ultimately, of course, the benefactors are the youth enrolled in school. The administrator must do no less than his best to foster this cooperative effort.

EVALUATION AND CHANGE



The character of any enterprise is measured by its flexibility to meet changing needs. This requires continuous planning and evaluation. An instrument for the evaluation of Attendance Services is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services. (6) The instrument contains criteria commensurate with the concept that the positive approach will result in good school attendance. Constructed with advice and counsel of a qualified nationally represented jury, the instrument is divided into three major divisions: Organization and Adminisration, Attendance Personel, and Laws Affecting Attendance. It contains 64 criteria. Each criterion has been assigned a point value so that the evaluator may test his own program relatively in terms of what a group of authorities on school attendance services has adjudged to be proper. Also, it is recommended that, in addition to self-evaluation, a team of evaluators who are not directly associated with the program may pass judgement on its effectiveness. The results may then be used as base for improvement.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for ATTENDANCE SERVICES

1. Describe the positive or motivational approach to good school attendance.

2. Define two concepts for the solution to non-attendance problems: functional and diagnostic.

3. In a school district large enough to employ an attendance officer, describe the roles and relationships of the principal, teacher, secretary and auxilliary personnel.

4. What is the role and responsibility of parents in the promotion of good school attendance?

5. What is the relationship of attendance and the learning progress of students?

6. What financial factors are usually involved in student attendance?

7. Identify some alternatives to suspension for non-school attendance.

8. Should school attendance be compulsory? Outline the pros and cons of this question and be prepared to support either issue in a class debate.

9. Identify five or more major concepts about attendance services.

GUIDANCE SERVICES

CHAPTER IV

GUIDANCE SERVICES

The guidance program is an integral part of the modern American school. A pluralistic society that emphasizes the worth and dignity of all citizens requires that the schools not only provide an array of educational opportunities but also assist students in the process of matching opportunities with individual abilities, interests, and life goals. Guidance is increasingly seen as a supportive service that helps each student receive the optimum benefit from his education.

PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE

Certain philosophical positions have evolved during the history of the guidance movement. These positions are sometimes referred to as the "guidance point of view" or, more commonly, as principles of guidance. There are numerous statements of these principles available, and several textbooks are devoted to the topic. The following items are commonly included in discussions of the principles of guidance:

1. Guidance is centered on the individual. The needs, goals and development of the individual student represent the central concern of the counselor.

2. Individual differences are significant considerations in planning and implementing programs for students. The counselor must recognize that all students are not the same, but rather they differ one from another in many important ways so that a variety of alternatives are necessary to best serve all students.

3. Guidance should promote increased self-direction and freedom of choice by each student. The counselor should not assume the role of decision-making for studnts but rather serve to develop the individual's independence.

4. To lead fuller lives, people can profit from the assistance provided by a guidance program. The counselor can be of help in maximizing the achievements of all students, not just the ones with problems.

5. Guidance services should reach all students in the school. While the counselor's aid to students with serious problems (remedial guidance) and the counselor's efforts to help students avoid difficulties (preventive guidance) involve many individuals, all students should be assisted by the counselor's work in improving the individual's ability to handle his normal concerns and maximize his strengths (developmental guidance).

6. Guidance is the responsibility of all school personnel. Along with the counselor, teachers, administrators and other staff members each has a place on the guidance team, working cooperatively to meet the guidance needs of students. (3)

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

As with other aspects of school services, proper functioning of the guidance program depends greatly on intelligent organization and administration. Certainly, administrative leadership is exerted through the provision of appropriate funds, facilities and personnel. Perhaps even more important, however, is the administrator's continuous evaluation of all aspects of the guidance program to determine the degree to which school policy, approved by the local board, is actually being implemented.

For guidance to be an integral part of the school program requires that guidance share in the overall philosophy and objectives of the institution as a whole. Guidance is generally seen as a facilitating activity that assists individuals to attain the maximum benefit from the educational experience. The objectives to which the curriculum is directed, therefore, are of major concern to guidance administrators.

The role of objectives in American education can be grasped from a consideration of their origins and uses. An educational philosophy, or general view of the nature and value of education includes certain subjective positions regarding "what ought to be." From these general positions, more concrete objectives are developed. The educational objectives indicate the direction the school wishes to take - where it wants to go. To reach their objectives, to go in the desired direction, certain guidelines are necessary. When these guidelines are formally stated and approved by the local school board, they become policy. Administrators at various levels are charged with the responsibility of seeing that policy is carried out. The operation of the guidance program must be managed within the framework of the policy statements specifically relating to it, and in harmony with policy established for the institution as a whole. Schools in which counselors must spend a considerable amount of time in attendance and discipline concerns receives lower ratings of services. Hence a supportive, service oriented atmosphere is more conducive to quality counseling services than a punitive atmosphere. (14)

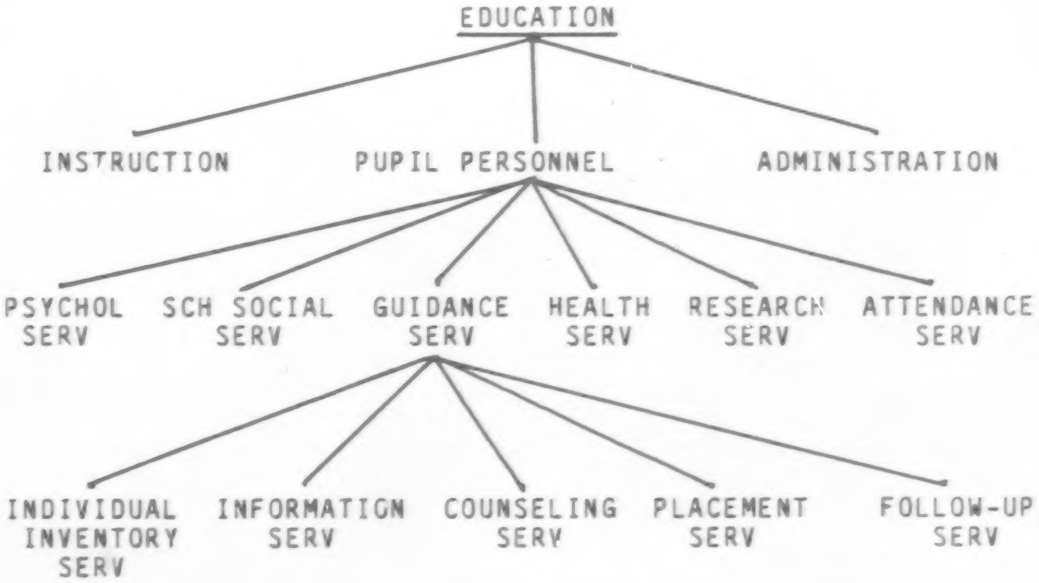
Traditional Organizational Structure -- Guidance Services

While several newer plans are currently evolving, it is likely that the traditional structure of the guidance program will dominate the scene for many years. This organizational structure is also referred to as "the services approach" because it is based on the view of guidance as a series of services to students. Also inherent in this scheme is the view of formal education as consisting of three major divisions of activity: instruction, pupil personnel, and administration. Pupil personnel is further divided into a series of services for students including guidance services.

Figure 1 presents an outline of this conceptual framework including the five subdivisions usually assigned to guidance services: individual inventory, information, counseling, placement and follow-up. These subdivisions and the assigned names are not common enough to be considered standard, but they are quite representative of what is found in many samples of both theory and practice. Generally, only the larger schools have separate offices or personnel for each of the pupil personnel and guidance services. Most schools, however, provide a variety of these services through more limited staff and facilities.

Figure 1

PLACING GUIDANCE IN EDUCATION


EDUCATION
INSTRUCTION
PUPIL PERSONNEL
ADMINISTRATION
PSYCHOL SERV
SCH SOCIAL SERV
GUIDANCE SERV
HEALTH SERV
RESEARCH SERV
ATTENDANCE SERV
INDIVIDUAL INVENTORY SERV
INFORMATION SERV
COUNSELING SERV
PLACEMENT SERV
FOLLOW-UP SERV

The term "service" implies more than a single activity, an office, or a staff member. A guidance service is a process that may involve a variety of activities, facilities, and personnel in order to provide a particular type of help to students. Thus, each of the five guidance services -- individual inventory, information, counseling, placement, and follow-up -- is a complex process which certain major elements of the guidance program are made available to students.

The Individual Inventory Service is the process in which information about each student is collected, maintained, and used. The school testing program along with various forms, grade reports, and health records are examples. Much of this information is maintained as the student record or cumulative record. The maintenance aspect of the Individual Inventory Service involves organization and recording of data along with the updating of records as new information becomes available. Individual Inventory data are used for counseling of individual students, preparing case studies, determining class placement, and a variety of other purposes.

The maintenance and use of Individual Inventory data, particularly the cumualtive record, require careful planning and supervision by the professional staff. In addition to the considerable clerical task involved, very serious problems in the ethical, legal, and public relations realm can develop from improper handling of these data. School counselors and administrators will wish to be certain that clear guidelines have been developed for handling confidential information and that all concerned persons know and follow this policy.

Standardized tests provide a fast and effective method of collecting information about students. However, careful planning and a degree of technical knowledge of measurement is necessary to insure that maximum value is obtained from the testing program. Selecting valid and reliable instruments with appropriate norms, scheduling and administering the tests correctly, arranging for accurate scoring and recording of results all require considerable skills.

Perhaps actual use made of the results represents the best criterion by which the testing program can be judged. Frequently, schools have gone to considerable effort and expense in testing students but have failed to use the test results adequately. The following points suggest methods of increasing the usefulness of the school testing program.

a. Tests should be selected to answer questions or satisfy real needs currently of interest to school personnel.

b. Overtesting, the use of unproven instruments, and questionable test administration procedures should be avoided.

c. The test results should be stated in a manner that is meaningful to all potential users.

d. Guidelines should be developed to insure that test results are made available to students, faculty and parents in an understandable form and with appropriate explanation.

e. Responsibility for supervision and continuing evaluation of the testing program should be given to a knowledgeable professional staff member.

The Information Service is the process by which educational, occupational and personal-social information about the environment is made available to students. Obviously, students cannot make free and informed decisions about their futures without adequate information. In a highly complex and rapidly changing culture, the individual cannot hope to be aware personally of all the trends and conditions that will affect his/her future. Yet, without sufficient and valid data, freedom of choice becomes meaningless.

Just as the Individual Inventory Service collects, maintains and uses information about the individual student, the Information Service collects, maintains and disperses data regarding the world in which the individual does and will live. The future orientation is necessary since many decisions, by their very nature, involve the future - employment to seek, college to attend - and in a dynamic society, present conditions rapidly change.

The Information Service is often considered as having three major parts or divisions in accordance with the type of data involved: occupational information, educational information, and personal-social information. Occupational information is the oldest type of information used by counselors. It involves such considerations as job descriptions, working conditions, employment and economic trends, and methods of entering occupations. Educational information has several aspects all involving school at one level or another. Information about schools or colleges, the programs they offer, and their admission requirements, is one segment. Financial aid information regarding loans, scholarships and work-study programs is a second aspect of educational information. Assistance in developing effective study habits, test-taking skills, and reading ability represents another area.

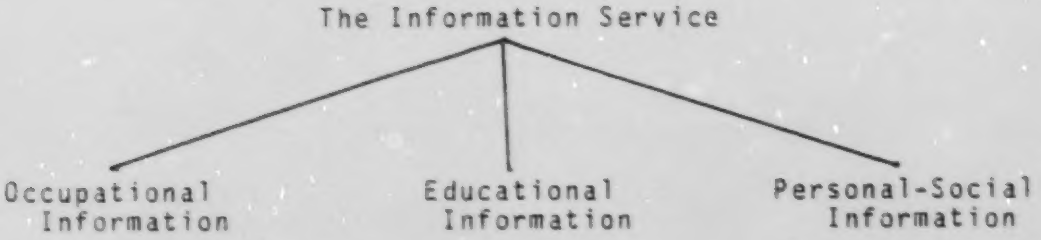
Personal-social information is a relatively new resource available to the guidance worker. It has been developed in recognition of the fact that many of the difficulties, problems, and decisions which an individual faces involve his acceptance of himself and his relations with other people. Assistance in understanding oneself and others, suggestions on improving interpersonal skills, and discussions of personal and social problems of interest to youth represent common types of information in this division.

As at other levels of schooling, career concepts must become a part of the regular classroom instruction through infusion, as well as be included as a part of the guidance and counseling team. (6)

Materials for the information service are often prepared commercially and relate to the regional or national scene. There are many sources and these mateials are usually of exceptionally fine quality. However, the school will require personnel knowledgeable in this field both to select published materials and to prepare reports that relate to the local environment.

FIGURE 2

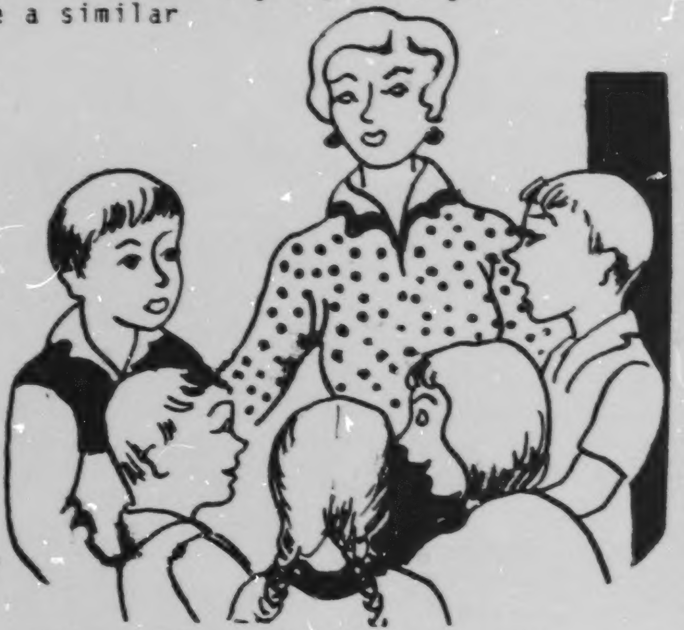
THE INFORMATION SERVICE



Maintenance of informational materials presents some difficult problems because of the variety of media employed (tapes, films, posters, books, pamphlets, etc.) and because of the importance of keeping these materials up-to-date. A concerted and continuing effort is needed to properly maintain these materials and at the same time make them available to students and staff. Without creativity and industry on the part of the counselor, information tends to collect and become worthless rather than being quickly dispersed and used.

The Counseling Service is the guidance process in which students are provided an opportunity to discuss their concerns with a professionally trained counselor. Some of the student's concerns may involve problems or difficulties he is experiencing; other concerns might revolve around decisions to be made; and yet other concerns may be neither problems nor decisions but simply topics normally of interest to individuals at his stage of development. Counseling is frequently discussed under various subdivisions such as vocational, educational, and personal. Remedial, preventive, and developmental represent another classification system for counseling. The former categories are based on counseling content, while the latter system relates to the counselor's purpose. In practice, however, these classifications do not prove particularly helpful. The individual does not have his concerns so rigidly departmentalized. He does not often present a single, easily categorized topic to his counselor. The human capacity for complexity and interaction of needs insures that most serious counseling crosses a variety of these artificial boundaries.

Originally, counseling was described as a one-to-one relationship between client and counselor; however, various forms of group or multiple counseling have become quite popular in the schools. Group counseling is usually conducted with one counselor and a group of eight or ten students who all have a similar concern they wish to discuss. Besides an opportunity for discussion with the counselor, the individual has the experience of interacting with other students who have similar concerns. In addition to being economical of the counselor's time, group methods have proven markedly effective in assisting many students in a variety of settings.



A number of approaches and techniques have been suggested for counseling. Client centered counseling, behavioral counseling, and the trait-and-factor (directive) approach all have been popular at various times. Current thought seems to recognize that no one method is best for all students. It is more important that the counselor be a person who recognizes the uniqueness of each student and has developed several sound counseling techniques to help his clients. The counselor should be a person with a strong desire to work with students, and he should devote significant percentage of his time to interviews with clients.

As with other services, counseling requires careful planning and evaluation to insure usefulness. While the counseling staff must make adequate provisions for handling emergencies, it is generally best to develop a plan for scheduled appointments so that all students will have an opportunity to see a counselor periodically. Usually, these routine interviews have a specific purpose, such as registration ordiscussion of academic progress, and the counselor has a flexible plan to follow. The able counselor will use these meetings to find individuals who would profit from further counseling and will encourage them to return for additional interviews.

The counselor-client interaction in the interview involves a special relationship. Empathy, acceptance, and genuineness are characteristics of the productive counseling relationship in which the student is encouraged to express himself and to increae his self-reliance. The adminstrator must be alert to insure that individuals assigned as counselors are qualified by training and personality to provide this type of relationship. Of similar importance is the provision of adequate support services, consultants and opportunity to use referral services so that the counselor can direct his energies productively to his major professional role. The use of counselors as teachers, disciplinarians or clerical workers frequently has drawn the fire of critics who see these other duties as diminishing the counselor's effectiveness or competing with counseling for his time.

The Placement Service is the guidance process by which students are assisted in selecting, entering and adjusting to new educational and occupational experiences. Usually job placement is associated with the placement service. However, the student's "next step" after school may well be more education in the form of a college, vocational school or apprenticeship program. A broader conception of the Placement Service

includes assistance given students in course selection, part-time employment and selection of school clubs and activities.

To be effective, the guidance workers involved with placement must maintain close contact with potential employers and representatives of the educational institutions or progrAms of interest to his students. He must be aware of the advantages, disadvantages and entrance requirements of the various occupational, educational and recreational opportunities open to his clients. The placement officer must be skilled in helping students prepare themselves for these new experiences, and adjusting to new demands on time and energy.

The interdependence of the several guidance services can be seen clearly in relation to the placement funtion. Information about the environment certainly play important roles. Counseling assists in the decision-making process and follow-up data help students determine the likely results of selecting one of the various alternatives available.

The Follow-up Service is the process by which the school attempts to determine how well it has prepared students for the next step in their occupational or educational careers. Many of the guidance and instructional programs provided for students have an orientation to the future attempt to assist students with some future activity. By means of follow-up the effectiveness of programs can be determined and necessary adjustments made.

One major aspect of the Follow-up Service is involved in the collection, organization, and use of information about school leavers. The term "school leavers" is used to indicate that both graduates and drop-outs should be studied. Information on drop-outs can be used to evaluate both total school programs and specific guidance efforts to reduce the drop-out rate.

Occupational selection and success data are of considerable assistance in evaluating vocational programs and career guidance services. The success and satisfaction of graduates in higher education indicates the effectiveness of academic programs and college guidance.

Follow-up research can also be of help of determining the validity or predictive ability of testing instruments used in the school. In like manner, the effectiveness of various guidance services can be judged by this type of research, and the stability of vocational choices made in school can not be ignored.

Data can be collected in a number of ways, mailed questionnaires being one of the most common. Phone calls, college records, and interviews are others. The former student himself, employers, parents and college officials can be used as the source of information.

Once the follow-up information is collected, it should be organized into usable forms and presented in effective ways to individuals and groups who will use the data in decision-making. Teachers, couselors, administrators, board members, parents, and students all have need of follow-up information in making realistic choices. It is unfortunate that most schools make little use of this type of research.

The Systems Approach

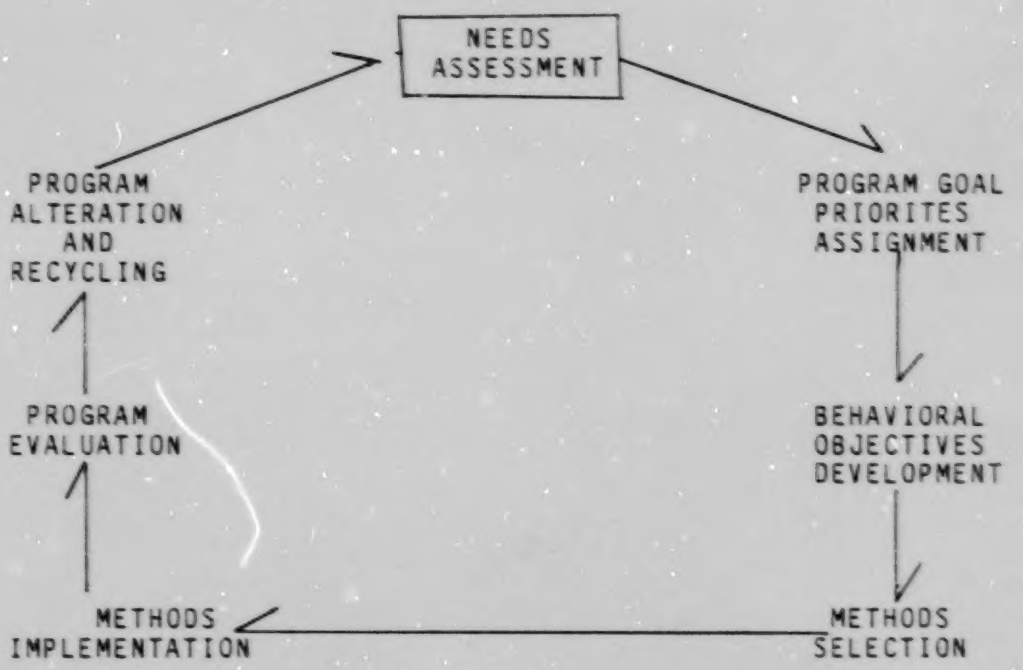
In addition to the traditional organizational structure of shool guidance, several newer approaches have been developed. As example, it has been suggested that guidance can be organized by dividing it into services to students, services to teachers, and services to the administration. (8:219-20)

The project or special programs approach to organization represents a reaction to the less flexible services structure. In this newer approach, permanent services or offices are eliminated and special projects or programs are developed to meet current student needs. These programs usually use elements from several of the traditional services. One important feature of this approach is that the special program is no longer justified by student needs. As example, drug abuse may become a significant problem at a school. A major program of group and individual counseling, information, and referral may be mounted to combat the problem. Should the problem lose its significance after a few years, the program can be curtailed or eliminated and effort expended in other directions.

Several features of the newer approaches to the organization of school guidance are incorporated in the systems approach. (4) A system consists of a continuous cycle of interrelated elements that provide for both the delivery of a service (or production of a product) and the regular evaluation and improvement of the system itself. A systems approach to guidance includes a carefully planned and administered program that determines the needs of students, develops objectives based on the needs, formulates methods to reach the objectives, provides activities to achieve the objectives, evaluates the system's effectiveness, and initiates necessary changes in the system as the cycle is repeated (See Figure 3).

FIGURE 3

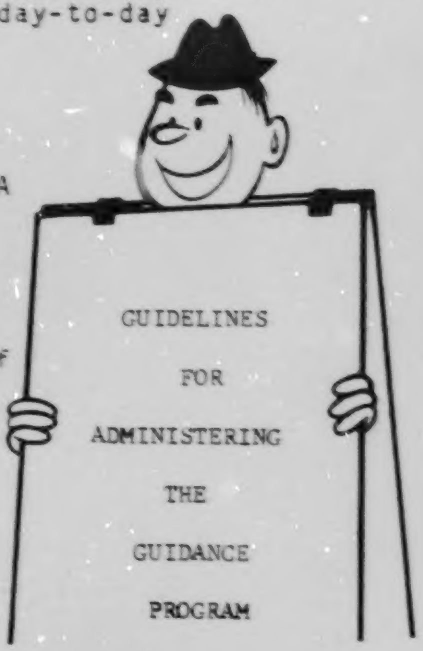
A GUIDANCE SYSTEM


NEEDS ASSESSMENT
PROGRAM GOAL PRIORITES ASSIGNMENT
BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES DEVELOPMENT
METHODS SELECTION
METHODS IMPLEMENTATION
PROGRAM EVALUATION
PROGRAM ALTERATION AND RECYCLING

Precise statement of goals and procedures, use of measurable and observable pupil behavior as outcomes, and accountability are among the advantages claimed for the systems approach.

The development of systems models for education is currently a popular research activity. Dr. Robert E. Campbell and others working at the Center for Vocational and Technical Education, the Ohio State University, have done extensive work in the application of this approach to career guidance and career education. (5)

Independent of the particular organizational structure developed for a specific school guidance program, certain general principles of administration have applicability. The principles should serve as guidelines in the day-to-day administration of these programs.



1. Since guidance is centered on the needs of individual students, a continuing analysis of student needs should provide a major source of direction for the program. A variety of procedures -- interview with students, summaries of pupil characteristics, results of tests and surveys, teachers' opinions, reports of local sociological and economic conditions -- can be used to determine present and future guidance needs of students.

2. The entire guidance staff along with representatives of the administration and faculty should be involved in planning the guidance program. Use of a "guidance committee" or other method to provide a wide base for decision-making will help insure a variety of view and greater support for the program.

3. Existing strengths and special needs or weaknesses in the local situation must be considered in administering the guidance program. The wise administrator does not try to install an idealistic model program in his school without considering whether the new system will allow him to capitalize on existing strengths and to overcome the disadvantages of existing weaknesses.

4. The authority and responsibility of guidance personnel must be clearly specified and communicated to all concerned. Accountability, efficiency and even staff morale demand that clear understanding exists as to who is responsible for what.

5. Basic policies and procedures relating to guidance should be carefully and cooperatively developed, approved by all governing board, and disseminated in written form. All concerned individuals should be made aware of these policies and procedures. The relation of practices to educational objectives, the handling of confidential information, approved referral procedures, and assigned duties of the guidance staff are among the items to be included in written policies and procedures.

6. Both present and future needs of the guidance program should be considered in planning an adequate budget. Growth in enrollment, expanded services, and rising costs

will influence budgetary expenditure on personnel, facilities, and materials.

7. Provision should be made to utilize the special skills of guidance workers by having them serve as consultants to parents, teachers, and administrators. Counselors often are specialists in areas that are of considerable concern to the schools -- human development, research methods, measurement and evaluatin, career education -- and this expertise should be fully utilized.

8. The administration should see that the public relations needs and potential of the guidance program are not neglected. School programs, newsletters, meetings, conferences and reports are a few of the methods that can be used to help the school's several publics gain an understanding and appreciation of the guidance program.

9. Careful coordination of guidance activities with other school functions should be provided. Guidance will not be considered a facilitator of learning if it regularly interferes with other curricular activities. Clear, open communication with all school personnel greatly aids in this coordination.

10. Continuous evaluation of all aspects of the guidance program should be routinely included in administrative procedures. Product and process evaluation should be attempted. Comparison of the school's practices with procedures generally considered of high quality should be made. Evaluation should be considered the initial step in the improvement of the guidance program.

11. The counselor has a unique opportunity to serve as a change agent. This change agent status will exist across role responsibilities including: A) Identifying and assessing exceptional students; B) Developing lines of communication; C) Serving on Individualized Education Plan (IEP) Committees; D) Coordinating the implementation of related services and due process; and E) Counseling exceptional adolescents. (9)

PERSONNEL

The key to the success of guidance sevices is competent personnel anad the dedication of staff, students, and the community to the program. The superintendent of schools and principals must understand and support the guidance program if its full potential is to be achieved. One aspect of adminstrative support is the provision of qualified personnel.

The number of individuals on the guidance staff will vary, naturally, with the size of the student population served. It is possible, however, to indicate the type of positions generally required and to suggest some guidelines for determining the numbers of staff members needed.

The Counselor

The counselor is the key member of the guidance staff. Generally, his training includes 30 or 40 semester hours beyond the bachelors degree and perhaps including a masters degree. State certification is also required for most public school counseling assignments. Usually, some teaching and/or work experience in addition to graduate education is required for certification. A few states have initiated competency based counselor certification systems in which the individual must demonstrate possession of certain designated competencies in order to become certified. Over 40 states have their own licensure committees and have begun educational efforts to acquaint their members with the licensure and credentialing issues. In 1975, the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) formally endorsed couselor licensure and established its licensure commission. (12)

Professional counselors are considered generalists and their training prepares them for any of the guidance services. However, bacause of experience, interest or convenience, larger institutions frequently assign counselors to specialized duties such as testing, college admissions, or job placement. In recent years, some special designations and certifications for types of counselors have emerged. "Vocational Counselor," "Special Education Counselor," and "Counselor for the Disadvantaged" represent some of these specialties.

Interest in students and the ability to form productive counseling relationships with clients are major personality factors to be considered in conselor selection. Recently, considerable research has been conducted in an effort to determine the characteristics associated with effective counseling. The administrator who is considering the selection of a counselor may wish to review some of this research. (13)

The ratio of one counselor to 250 or 300 secondary students, and one elementary counselor for every 500 students are generally suggested in the guidance literature. In practice, wide variation in counselor-student ratios are found, usually with significantly more students per counselor than are recommended. State educational support practices and the wealth of individual districts likely are more potent factors in determining the counselor-student ratio than are recommendations by authorities.

The Director of Guidance

Schools that employ two or more counselors frequently designate one individual as head counselor or director of guidance. This staff member generally devotes part of his time to administration of the guidance program. It may require a very small amount of his time and his major duty may be that of a counselor as the director is in a small school. In larger schools, all or the majority of the director's time may be devoted to administrative responsibilities.

In general, the director of guidance is expected to meet the same standards of training, certification and personality as the counselor. However, additional education, experience, and maturity are frequently considered desirable characteristics of this type of personnel. Certainly, the administrative duties of the director would suggest the need for an individual who can exert professional leadership and concern himself with the essential details of management.

Emphasis on the following factors during an interview are considered important:

-Skills necessary to establish meaningful relationships with students, teachers, parents, and administrators

-Skills in communication

-Technical knowledge of the curriculum and school operation

-Skills necessary to change strategies with individuals and institutions

-Skills necessary for the use of appraisal devices

-Skills necessary for the interpretation of appraisal results

- -Skills necessary for conflict resolution

Factors which are considered less important are:

- -Excessive emphasis upon formal course work
- -Excessive emphasis upon previous teaching experience
- -Sex of the candidate
- -Length of previous teaching or counseling experience
- -Age of the candidate
- -Marital status of the candidate
- -Mobility record in previous employment (10)

Secretarial Assistance

The smooth and efficient operation of a guidance office requires the assistance of an individual who can provide secretarial support services. Often, the term "guidance secretary"is used to designate this staff member. Again, the size of the guidance program will dictate the number of people involved in this function. A part-time clerk may be sufficient for some smaller operations, while th larger offices may require a number of full-time workers with varying titles and levels of responsibility.

In addition to acting as receptionist, private secretary, and keeper of the files, the guidance secretary may be required to have some skill in psychometics, particularly the scoring of standardized tests.

The necessity for tact, understanding and regard for confidentiality by the guidance secretary when working with students and faculty cannot be overstated. The receptionist is usually the first, and often the only, contact that individuals have with the guidance program. Every effort should be made to select appropriate personnel for this sensitive position and to insure that they recognize themselves as an important element in the guidance program.

Other Personnel

Depending on the size of the institution and its organizational structure, a number of other individuals may be considered members of the guidance staff. School psychologists, school health workers, school social workers, and attendance officers may work directly with the guidance staff or on a referral basis. Some states are now experimenting with guidance workers with a level of training below that of the counselor. Paraprofessionals, with training below the bachelors level, and the guidance associate (bachelors level) represent two new types of guidance workers.

FACILITIES

While elaborate, specialized facilities are not required for the guidance program, the work of the counselor is facilitated by office space that meets the few basic conditions dictated by function. In addition, facilities that are conveniently located for student use setting for informal discussion help to insure a substantial clientele for the guidance program.

Specific recommendations for guidance facilities include:

1. Private offices where counseling and other confidential discussions can be held.
2. Display cases for informational materials.
3. Adequate and secure storage space for student records, tests, and other materials.
4. A reception and waiting room where a guidance secretary can welcome clients and arrange appointments.

5. Convenient access to clerical assisstance.

6. Use of larger rooms for testing and group guidance activities.

7. A multi-purpose room that can be used for staff conferences, group counseling, and as a work room for various projects.

8. Suitable furniture and furnishing to produce a comfortable, non-institutional atmosphere.

The size and number of rooms required for guidance naturally will vary with the size of the staff and student enrollment. Some attention, however, should be given to each of the specific recommendations enumerated above. In like manner, great variation is found in the range of materials and equipment found in different school guidance offices. Office equipment and supplies, tests, informational materials, books, files, recorders and duplicators represent some, but not all, of the categories represented. In addition to staff size and student enrollment, the procurement of guidance supplies and equipment is influenced by many other factors: availability of funds, special services provided, interest and background of the staff, etc. Utilization in promoting student development would appear too be an important criterion by which to judge the appropriateness of these expenditures.

GUIDANCE SERVICES AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

The setting, purposes and activities of the guidance services are unique for favorable school-community relations. The results are evident, especially through the counselor-teacher-student-parent relationship.

Since the school counselor is in a particularly strategic position to promote understanding of the school program as it touches the life of each student, he can and should play a key role in the more informal aspects of the public relations program according to Gold Mine, "PR and the School Counselor," the National School Public Relations Association. (11:25) Counselors do not assign grades, maintain discipline, justify budgets, face a delegation from the local book burning society, or explain tax increases. Counselors meet parents in situations where the child is not in trouble. This creates a more pleasant atmosphere, and one more psychologically sound for a public relations effort. He is in a position in the school setting to handle community relations and promote school-community harmony. There are at least seven ways he can do this according to James Muro in his article, "Counselors Are the Men to Shape Your Public Relations," in The American School Board Journal:

1. Good test results get good press. Let it be known with a press release when your district's students have scored high on a standardized test.

2. Dispense information and services with a flourish. The counselor ought to be a human file -- and dispenser-- of useful information; the kind that gets services,jobs and specialized care for people, and the kind that gives a warm feeling toward a school district that acts as though it cares something about them.

3. Let the community know you're helping its youngsters get into college. If he makes it a public habit to let the community know of loans and scholarships and how to apply for them -- and has information to back up the announcements -- he can hardly help but build good community relations.

4. Turn the double-talk into plain English. A guidance newsletter mailed regularly to parents can help gain community support if it's short, clear and devoid of jargon -- and if it stresses the advantages for the child.

5. Warning letters can be warming letters. Don't let a parent be shocked when a report card arrives home. At best, he'll blame the school. Also, make it a practice to send letters of commendation for school achievements, academic and other-wise, to parents.

6. Use community talent for better community relations. Use local talent as speakers as often as possible on programs, not just on career days.

7. Counselors should talk more. The power structure of a lot of communities is reflected by the membership in service clubs, labor unions, and social groups. Since the organizations contain community leaders,

> they also help shape community thought and policy. The counselor, since he deals with the total school program and, hopefully, knows something about it, at least ought to make it known that he is an available luncheon speaker.

Guidance personnel serve as liaison between school, home and community. They inform the public about the work of the schools through face-to-face contact with parents and other persons in the community and by speaking to groups such a P.T.A., Sunday School or church, civic, and social. Also, they may inform the public about the school by issuing pamphlets, brochures or other printed materials which tell the school's story.

Guidance personnel are often consulted when a child is not learning, or adjusting satisfactorily at school. They are in a good position to assist the parents in seeing the school as a helping agent by visiting with them and cooperativelty working out a plan to help the child begin learning and adjusting well. If the school cannot accomplish this, the parents may be referrred to an agency which can help. Whether the school solves the child's problem or not, confidence may be established in the school if it assists in initiating a solution.

When there is two-way communication between the school, home, and community, better understanding of the aims and objectives of the school system is accomplished. Within the framework of the total PR program, the guidance personnel are in a strategic position.

EVALUATION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES

A program of guidance services will meet the needs of students only if careful attention is given to continuous evaluation and improvement. Guidance is centered on student needs and, since these needs change, one aspect of evaluation is needs assessment. The effectiveness of the guidance program in meeting student needs must be checked regularly by a series of process and product evaluations.

The guidance process can be evaluated in terms of objectives, services offered, characteristics of personnel, adequacy of facilities and materials available. Product evaluation involves looking at the students who have been assisted by the guidance program: what are their opinions of the guidance program? How are they getting along now? Do they succeed in college and on jobs? Would they advise others to see the counselor?

An evaluator may wish to consider the following indicators of a successful guidance program:

1. Appropriate balance in the emphasis on the various services.

2. Orientation programs, career days and other group activities that reach all students.

3. Guidance staff members who are concerned with professional growth.

4. Sufficient variety of academic, vocational, and extracurricular activities to serve all students.

5. Reduction in failures and drop-outs.

6. Requests for more guidance services.

7. Students who are aware of their own capacities and limitations.

8. Counselors who counsel.

An instrument for the evaluation of guidance services is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of school Special Services. (7) It has been constructed and validated with the assistance of a national jury of authorities and practitioners. Specifically designed to evaluate the organization and administration of guidance services, it can be used for self-evaluation, evaluation of programs by consultants, or evaluation by an "outside team." Where no guidance program exists, the criteria can serve as guidelines for organizational purposes.

SUMMARY

The guidance program provides the modern American school an excellent means of facilitating student development. Guidance embodies many of the educator's attempts to stress the needs of the individual as major considerations, even in the complex, multi-dimensional enterprise known as the public school system. Only with professionally directed organization and administration, however, can there be hope that guidance will fulfill its mission.

The services approach to guidance program organization has emerged as a popular model. Individual inventory, information, counseling, placement and follow-up are the names frequently applied to the component services in guidance. Each of these services actually encompass a general process by which aid is provided to students. Each service also requires professionally trained personnel and careful management. Competent, dedicated personnel are essential at all levels of guidance activity, but particularly in administration. The superintendent of schools and school principals play key roles in the guidance program through adminstrative leadership. Only with their understanding and support can the goals of guidance be reached. Administrative leadership should be extended to the guidance program through: the development of objectives and policy; provision of personnel, facilities and materials; insurance of adequate budgets; and particularly by institution of a continuing system of evaluation. To meet the needs of students in a constantly changing world requires continuing needs assessment and program evaluation.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for GUIDANCE SERVICES

1. What steps should be taken to comply with Individual Privacy Rights relative to CUM-File information?

2. How are plans formulated for a standardized testing program?

3. Why should the counselor be available to each student on a daily basis?

4. How should the counselor be utilized in the registration process?

5. What procedures should be used to allow the counselor opportunities to meet and confer with college admissions representatives and with Personnel officials from business and industry?

6. How should follow-up information on students who have left the system be utilized? (graduates or other)

7. What provisions should be made for elementary school guidance programs and how should they differ from secondary school programs?

8. Distinguish between the "Services" or "Systems" approach to guidance? What is the rationale of each?

9. How is the total guidance program reviewed and evaluated in terms of whether it is adequately meeting the needs of students?

10. What particular skills should a guidance secretary possess?

11. Describe the facility needs of a guidance program.

SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

CHAPTER V

HEALTH PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

The school health program should be viewed by the administrator as the composite of procedures and activities designed to protect and promote the well-being of students and school personnel. These procedures and activities include those organized in school health services, providing a healthful environment, and health education.

A child's health is his parents' responsibility. However, in contemporary society, schools and other agencies can assist in health care. If a child is to become an asset to society, he should have a good education, including education pertaining to his own health and that of the community. Within this environment maximum opportunity for good health and good health instruction should be provided. Therefore, we find most American schools, both public and private, offering health services and health instruction as part of the educational program.

PURPOSES-NATURE-SCOPE

School Health Services is that phase of the total school program which provides education, preventive measures, and assistance in health related fields which affect the mental and physical well being of students, faculty, and staff. Proper administration of the service requires activity both in and out of scool and coordination of efforts among several non-school agencies. The administrator should provide the leadership to maintain sufficient personnel to meet the every day needs as well as be adequately prepared to face emergency situations. A well informed staff equipped with adequate procedures and resources and sided by a cooperative community in supplying health services are visible evidence of good administration.

It is startling to learn that between 25 and 85 percent of the children -- depending upon the socio-economic areas from which they come -- enter schools with health defects such as nutrition, hearing, teeth, eye sight, or some other problems which are relatively easy to correct. Even more amazing is the fact that most of these children leave public school 12 years later with almost the same defects. Although they may be detected and referred, they are not always treated. There are some model programs, but for the most part, school personnel have given little more than lip service to the search for good health for all children. One identifiable model is the program of the Galveston, Texas, School System. That program cites the following factors which should affect plans to provide school health services:

1. Low immunity levels in the community.
2. Poor nutritional status of school aged children (as determined) by the National Survey.
3. Lowered achievement levels in certain groups.
4. Low use of existing health and social service resources.
5. Low completion rate on school health assessment referrals.
6. High absentee rates.
7. The need for parenting education.
8. High incidence of child abuse and neglect.
9. The admission of more multiple handicapped children to public schools.
10. Problems with adolescence such as drugs and V.D.
11. The lack of adequate health education to teach children to know their own health needs and how to meet them. (26:12)

OBJECTIVES of a program should include:

* A preventive program which includes identification of health problems and early remediation and health education.

* Diagnostic services include the screening assessments carried out regularly, as well as referral of those children seen through clinic visits or by request of the parent or teacher.

* Treatment services are those whereby the child receives care for identified problems - via referrals to appropriate physicians or agencies through the pare nt. Often the school cooperates by giving medications at school or assisting with physical examinations or other treatments prescribed by the doctor. This is especially necessary with the additional number of handicapped children. (26:12)

Federal funds are being used to serve many children, but the use of local funds to solve helth problems is limited in most communities. As a result, health services have become a crisis situation in too many school districts. The public must be made aware of the importance of the educational aspects of health, and of the necessity for detection, referral, and treatment at the earliest possible age. Better organization and administration of school health services may be a part of the answer.

There are many reasons why health service must rank high among the functions of the school program. First, there is the high correlation that generally exists between health disabilities and the inability to learn effectively. These discrepancies must be reduced or removed. Then there is the inevitability of accidents anad illnesses in all schools; therefore, schools must be equipped to take care of these as they occur. Also, inevitable in every school is the close proximity of large groups to others where infectious germs can be transmitted, so there must be appropriate means and practices to prevent and control the spread of disease in the schools.

School health programs must equip young people to make proper decisions to cope with threatened or actual diseases. Since almost all three states have compulsory school laws, it is a legal responsibility of the school to make as certain as feasible that children maintain good health to be able to attend. The school has the moral obligation to typify models of health behavior for the community. According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, the four ingredients of these models are instruction, services, environmental factors, and research.

Instruction includes the formally organized teaching procedures toward instilling appropriate health knowledge and practices. Instruction about these knowledges and practices should be emphasized from the beginning of school through college. Appropriate materials at each grade level should be utilized.

A sound and all inclusive health program should involve identification of health needs and resources; determination of long-range goals; the appropriate selection of program goals, together with carefully selected personnel to implement the goals; administrative leadership to coordinate health and leadership personnel; convenient liaison and involvement.

The proper environment includes appropriate organization of the school day and favorable classroom procedures to influence the growth of students. The school environment should be designed to promote good physical and mental health, and good relationships among children, teachers, and the community.

Major Health Problems of School Age Children

The major causes of death among children ages five to fourteen are accidents, cancer and other malignaces, pneumonia and influenza, congenital malformations and cardiovasular-renal disease. Accidents lead all others causes of deaths each year. Among the leading causes of accidental deaths are motor vehicle accidents, drowning, fire, and explosions. (24:1181)

Research, of course, will be aimed at searching out the essential experiences in a good health program, as well as discovering faulty procedures in current programs. A good health program is an integral part of the total educational program, and not just an adjunct to it.

School personnel involved in school health programs are: adminstrators (school board, superintendent, and his assistants and principals), health instructional staff, classroom teachers and supportive staff. Usual supportive agencies of a school health program are advisory councils and committees. (22:2-6)

The basic personnel involved in a school health program are the children. Next are the parents and executive personnel. The school health personnel have shared responsibility in the school health program. Every teacher has a significant role. The traditional idea has been for the health program to be primarily the responsibility of the school physician, nurse, and administration. The newer concept is the "health team." This includes counselors, psychologists, attendance personnel, social workers, and teachers. The health team concept greatly broadens health services. The functions of the school physician and nurse have been broadly expanded. This requires that both must have extensive knowledge of the public school, its work, and, its relation to the community as a whole. The physician may serve as full or part-time medical director, school physician or consultant.

Areas of School Health

The typical school health program has generally consisted of three areas: school health services, healthful school living, and health education. The goal of these three learning areas is to enable every child to attempt to reach his highest learning potential. The goal of the total health program is to promote physical, mental, and emotional well-being.

The school health program encompasses all procedures to determine the health condition of each child, to interpret health needs and problems of those who are concerned, to stimulate remedial conditions, to help prevent and control disease, and to be able to cope with emergencies as they arise. Since the function of the school is education, those in education must give health education a prominent place. Good health is the source of good attitudes and good health behavior.

School health services may be provided in a multiplicity of ways. The most common one is that provided by boards of education as an organizational plan. Then, there are health appraisals, counseling and follow-up, disease control and emergency care, special educaion and others. In 1966, Public Law 89-749, known as the Partnership for Health Law, was passed. This law provided plans by which health services could be coordinated for a given community and criteria for evaluation of these programs were established.

It should be noted that Head Start and several preschool programs administered by the U.S. Children's Bureau place strong emphasis upon health education. Also, the ESEA (Elementary and Secondary School Act of 1965) provided resourses for the founding of health programs. Unfortunately, untrained or partially trained personnel often were employed which retarded the health programs seriously. The development of school health programs in the United States has been spotty and irregular, usually obtaining great public interest and support during epidemics only to dwindle when the epidemic was brought under control. School health services have developed in many communities without definite planning or careful consideration of reasons why they should exist.

Although physical examinations are important, major emphasis must be on the education of the child and his parents regarding good health. It is important to note that parents have the primary responsibility for the health of their children, and that all school programs should supplement that care. The school program should aid the parents in improving, maintaining, and promoting child health primarily through learning experiences.

One of the most basic problems today is that most school health programs are program-centered, not person-centered. The child is interested in himself. School health services, especially testing programs, have high pupil interest. The student is curious about the outcome of all tests. This is a goood time to emphasize important health points while interest is aroused. Both parents and students become involved. Thus, the examination becomes a truly educational experience.

The Comprehensive Program

The United States can provide an integrated and coordinated program of school health within a comprehensive system of preventive services. The conditions needed are decentralized direction and funding, cooperative public and private responsibility, administration by pediatric nurse practitioners (and dental nurse practitioners in the case of dental services) with physicians and dentists playing ancillary and consultant roles associated with, but not controlling, this comprehensive service for children. (21:161)

The American School Health Association is in a position to make this kind of changed system possible, to become the national advocate of a comprehensive program of child health. For the country as a whole, this organization speaks for school health. From a professional standpoint, ASHA has least to lose. It is already established as the intermediary for child health services during the school years; it is but a step to assume responsibility for the childhood years altogether. The establishment of such comprehensive services will also offer strong support of existing educational activities. (21:162)

The U.S. Department of Education has made the following suggestions for a comprehensive school health program:

* A thorough medical and dental examination of all children on or before admission to school and at least three times there-after -- in intermediate grades, in late elementary or junior high school, and before leaving high school -- and at such times as may be considered advisable.

* A program of daily observation by all teachers for signs of possible deviation from normal conditions and referral of children with such signs, through the parents, to physicians or dentists for careful examination and necessary treatment.

* A coordinated follow-up program through which the schools encourage parents to provide needed corrective and protective measures.

* Organized health instruction, based on scientific information which will lead to the formation of desirable habits, attitudes, and appreciations in physical and mental health, taught by qualified health education specialists.

- An administrative program which is concerned with healthful school living, the individual development of children and youth and the influence of mental and emotional health on such factors as daily programs, testing, home work, methods of instruction and standards for the promotion to higher grades.

- A physical education program which provides planned instruction in activities suited to the sex, grades, ability, and special needs of the pupils.

- A well-rounded recreation program including provision for camping, recreation and after school life.

The Texas Education Agency has suggested the following objectives:

1. To make it possible from a health standpoint for all eligible children to attend school: Provide a healthful school environment through careful control of lighting, heating, ventilation, humidity, seating, water supply, sewage disposal, safety, lunchroom, sanitation and the like.

   Control communicable diseases by

- helping parents protect their children against preventable diseases
- encouraging the good health of school personnel
- excluding pupils with symptoms of communicable diseases
- complying with health department regulations in dealing with "contacts" and the readmission of pupils
- promote health in individual children by identification of health problems and remedial treatment

2. To help each child benefit from his school experience:

- provide an emotional climate in the school which will contribute to good health

- develop and implement plans for education in nutrition

- adjust the classroom situation to meet problems of physical social, and emotional handicaps insofar as possible

- encourage parents to take children to family doctors or appropriate school and community resources to seek correction of remediable conditions

3. Through classroom health instruction and individual discussion, to teach pupils the importance of disease prevention, health conservation, and healthful living for self, group, and community; and to teach in such a way that pupils will develop sound health practices

4. To encourage administrators, teachers, and other school staff members to maintain their own health

5. To make provisions in the school program to meet the needs of children with special health problems

6. To arrange routine procedures for care and special observation of children returning to school following illnesses such as measles, scarlet fever, upper respiratory diseases, meningitis, and others

7. To develop an acceptable program of health appraisal and health counseling

Health services should be organized on a priorities basis. The first usual recommendations are for medical examinations. These examiniations should include frequent dental examinations, weighing and measuring each child two or three times a year, vision and hearing tests, communicable disease control, immunizations, tuberculosis control, a school nutrition program and mental health services. Accurate chronological records should be kept and used in remediation and preventive practices.

Emergency first aid, special physical examination for athletes, special services for handicapped children, a healthful school environment, hygiene instruction in the primary grades, and a guarantee that school personnel are always in good health are cardinal principles which should be integral content in the school health program.

LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

The school health program is a part of public education and primarily a responsibility of the community and of the state. In recent years, the role of the federal goverrnment in defining the legal basis of school health programs has become more important.

State statutes govern measures for the control of communicable disease, safety in school buildings and grounds, emergency measures and curriculum offerings. In Texas, the State Board of Education is required by statute to determine the curriculum for schools, including courses related to health and safety. Local school boards may set additional policies, as long as these regulations do not conflict with state and federal laws. The extent of immunization beyond minimum requirements, however, is left to the local district. Responsibility for carrying out the health program is vested in the local school officials.

The federal government has mandated particular legal aspects of the school health program. Federal legislation provides for equal opportunity for female students to participate in intramural or interscholastic activities by having the use of comparable coaches, facilities, and equipment. Federal law 94-142 provides for the handicapped child to be indentified, evaluated, and placed in a setting that will best serve the child. These new regulations have had an impact on health programs and services.

Presently the adolescent can obtain health care by providing his or her own consent when emancipated, (sudden change from dependence to independence or failure of parent to recognize the special health care needs) or in the case of an emergency which is life threatening or from which permanent damage may result.

In the event that parental consent is refused and health care is needed, the nurse with an understanding of the law may still be able to assist the adolescent in obtaining care through the Mature Minor Doctrine Mature ... Is A subjective appraisal of the adolescent's ability to comprehend the situation and make a reasoned decision. (14:607)

The Buckley Amendment gives parents the right to see all school records, including health records. Disclosure to others (school personnel, outside agencies ...school personnel, such as principals or teachers, do not have the right to information regarding health care provided to a student without consent of the student's parents. (14:608)

ORGANIZATION

A school's sensitivity for continuous study of its problems and its organization is relatively more important than the extent to which generally recommended practices are currently in effect. Organization differs because no two communities are identical. School health problems are ultimately resolved locally. Some considerations in organizing the school health services are: the type of students, the community, length of school sessions, number and type of recess periiods, effect of half-sessions, the school day, and length of school year.

The content of the school health program must be organized to include people, factilities, and activities. The extent of the staff varies because of such factors as the size and financial support of the school system. Also, facilities and activities depend upon the system's financial support. Usually programs are organized with some or all of the following personnel:

- instructional personnel -- special health teachers or classroom teachers with special training
- school nurse(s)
- aides
- family, school, or public health doctor(s)
- family, school, or public health dentist(s)
- cooridinator for all phases of the health program
- special counselor(s)
- special education personnel
- community health and social worker(s)

Providing the proper environment in the buildings is essential. Proper organization would provide:

- health service rooms
- examination facilities
- special provision for the handicapped
- supplies and equipment for screening
- storage areas for records
- adequate classroom space for health instruction
- office facilities for the health personnel.

As important as the health service program is, it should not be planned at the exculsion of the other closely related areas, such as instruction and environment for learning, service, first aid and prevention of accidents and detection of communicable diseases.

ADMINISTRATION

The school adminstrator, whether principal of a small rural school or superintendent of a large metropolitan system, is the central figure in the success of the total school health program. He is delegated this responsibility by the board of education. His knowledge, interest, cooperation, inspiration and active participation can do much to make healthful school living effective. The leadership he provides to his staff and the community is a criterion by which the success of the health program can be predicted.

The administrator is responsible for policies, budgets, personnel, and staff support. The key to success lies in his provision for teamwork. As the heart of the school health program, the adminstrator himself must have in his own life the qualities of respect for good physical health and wholesome mental, social, emotional, and spiritual qualities. He makes himself an active member of the team while building a strong staff. Responsibility is delegated and respect for the idividual staff member prevails. He lets the staff know they are respected and are expected to give their best effort.

Since the administrator is a delegate of the school board, he must realize that he is responsible for the program and is mindful that no policies or directives are issued which will impair the staff's work or more importantly, the child's welfare.

The policies for the day-to-day operation of the school health program must be carefully formulated. The policies must indicate the scope and function of school health activities and delineate the health responsibilities of the school, parents, practicing physicians, and dentists, and other individuals and agencies within the community.

Policies should be based on the needs, at every level, within the scool system. Parents, the community, the staff, and especially the students should be made a part of the health program. It should be sufficiently flexible to meet present and future needs. State and federal agencies usually have common services with the state departments of health.

All policies and programs must be communicated to the teacher, the parents, the child and the community. Many times communications are lacking when the program fails to meet the needs. Failures, as well as successes, should be reported. The administrator who is required to select a type of health program will be wise to confer with representatives of the local medical and dental associations and the local health department before finalizing plans. In many cases, asking for their guidance will cause volunteer service to be offered resulting in cooperation. Cooperative relaionships between schools and local health departments bring total resources together to protect and promote healthful living.

A director of school health should be concerned with all aspects of school health -- health programs, health educaion, physical education, and special situations such as sports participation. However, the usual organization requires physical education and health education to be administered by a combined director, very often the athletic director. This empasizes the importance of the director's total qualifications. The school health director deals with matters of policy, budget, staff qualifications, staff educaion, and program evaluation. The superintendent must have complete confidence that this person understands and will sustain and support the health services program.

HEALTH COUNCILS

Health councils to advise the administration are organized specifically to secure inter-agency and inter-educational cooperatioon. There are two general types -- the community-wide council and the individual school council or committee. The community-wide council includes representation from each school unit, parent groups, and various community ageit council or committee is composed of the school's personnel, students and non-professional employees. All of these persons should be interested in the school's health problems. This type of council may move into related areas, such as walking distance to school, the length of the school day, lighting, and any problems influencing pupil health.

FINANCING

Funding sources raise another difficult point. Very little money is appropriated specifically for school health...Congress has ordered the Department of Education to set up an office to promote health education in the schools, and an office of comprehensive school health exists in the department. They have prepared a broad program of education -- Not services, however -- including compaigns against smoking, cancer, venereal disease, pregnancy in unmarried school children. (21:157-162)

Health service programs are financed and staffed in the following ways:

- State support through financial formulas
- Cooperative agreements between school districts and health departments

- Social agencies
- Local funds
- Medical and nursing services
- Volunteer agencies
- Federal agencies
- State and Federal special grants

To be effective, any cooperative plan must delineate authority and responsibility between the school and the local health department and other agencies. Misunderstandings can be avoided if it is realized that there are ethical, professional and legal limitations within each of the cooperating agencies.

The administrator, when considering program financing, not only must take the staff, building and equipment into consideration, but consideration must be given to clerical help, emergency equipment, toilet, cleaning and first aid supplies.

Funds are available from sources other than local taxation. For example, federal-state grants are obtainable for areas of handicapped children and special education. These grants for equipment and supplies also can be used for care of the normal student in times of emergency.

Budget needs should be directed from the individual schools through persons responsible in that school. One school may have more needs than another. These needs should be known and budgeted accordingly. The local situation determines staff size, but one person must be responsible for the program. "Everybody's business is nobody's business."

Legal authority exists for the closure of schools in the event of an epidemic. Close consultation between school authorities and health officials is desirable in reaching such a decision. However, it is the policy of the state departments of health and the state education agencies that schools remain open except when there is justification for closing because of insufficient students or the danger of the spreading of a communicable disease to epidemic proportions.

The administrator, director of health services, or a delegated representative should arrange for consultative services to meet special needs. Many times this person also can secure medical aid for deprived children, visual and hearing aids and other benefits at no cost to the underprivileged child. It may come from local civic groups or in some cases from local medical anad dental societies.

One of the latest innovations in school health services involves using the computer to determine accurately, quickly, and inexpensively the existence of unsuspected heart disease. It listens to a child's heartbeat and instantly compares it with an established range of normal heartbeats. If the machine suspects a child of having a heart problem, further medical examination is recommended. An inverse benefit of mass screening is that many children thought to have disease are freed of the worry and can resume rugged childhood activities. (26:27)

A majority of schools offer one or more services for needy pupils -- orthopedic equipment and therapy, hearing aids, glasses, dental, medical, psychiatric exams and sometimes treatment. (25:464-468)

FACILITIES

Minimum facilities for the school nurse to function properly and effectively include a room at least 20 feet long which will allow for vision screening. This requirement depends on the type of visual equipment used. By using a mirror and the Snelling chart, this allotment can be reduce to 10 feet. Other essentials for health services are a lavatory, commode, bed or cot, desk, filing cabinet, chairs and a screen, if separate patient rooms are not available. First aid materials must be available and conveniently located. Space should be provided for an audiometer as well as a quiet place for testing hearing ability. A nurse's office or conference room is essential for privacy in nurse-student-parent-teacher counseling.

FIRST AID

The trend of the times, the tenor of public demand and the very nature of professionalism requires teachers to be proficient in the application of recognized first aid techniques. (23:22) Usually regular classroom teachers are versed in this area. Therefore, a school system, contemporarily abreast, will conduct first aid in-service training for all levels of employees.

This is often referred to as an age of overprotection. It also is certainly an age in which people have become extremely conscientious. First aid training, conducted by community medical personnel or by school-related health staffs, can be invaluable for the teachers' protection, the students' well-being, and parent's concern.

Health Service Limitations

School personnel must be well informed in both the extent and limitations of their role in the administration of first aid. A clear understanding of the following points by all school health personnel and others affected by the health services is essential. All phases dealing with medical care need medical approval and direction. The nurse neither makes diagnoses nor does she prescribe medication or apply treatment. Standing orders approved and signed by the local medical consultant or committee may be carried out. These usually deal with first aid procedures and minor treatment of skin diseases previously diagnosed by a doctor. Written orders are important because the nurse is liable to criticism and legal action if she gives immunizations or vaccinations without an order In writing for each case. The only exception is when a doctor is present to assume responsibility during immunization.

THE SCHOOL NURSE

In many cases, the school nurse functions as the entire health service of a school district. With rising educational costs all public school personnel and services not directly and demonstratively beneficial to the learner are questionable and subject to elimination. In recent years numerous events reduced the school nurse's role to that of a health clerk, performing in most cases tasks that could be performed by a lay citizen or clerk with minimum training.

Educators in the nursing service training area are telling the nurse to expand her experiences and learn to detect defects which affect learning - even to the point of becoming a certified teacher. This is in part due to the nurse's training as an observer and her knowledge of child growth and development. The nurse notices changes in a child from the viewpoint of an expert in health services while symptoms may go unnoticed by the teacher. The nurse must learn to control the health problems that interfere with learning. She must be an educator of adults, specifically of parents and teachers. Nurses in school are becoming child centered, rather than establishment or program centered.

The school nurse must exercise caution in most cases. One example to emphasize this facet of health services is that the pupil who is sick represents a horizontal subject when introduced to the nurse. The student is normally a vertical being, and the nurse's job is to exercise her role prudently. The program in the past has been presented negatively. Many excellent health service programs today emphasize prevention, training, and cooperative arrangements.

Consequently, nurses are finding themselves to be extensions of the schools and in liaison with the public. They have the school's best tool for public relations in hand. The administrative team must guarantee that the program receives the support it needs, financially and morally, to succeed fully.

Three positive and specific directions will help : (1) be a practitioner with pupils and family; (2) be a leader in socio-economic problems; (3) be a stateman who speaks for the children, a person who seeks a little less conversation and more action.

In staffing the program, consideration should be given to emotional and behavioral problems of children. The content of guidance and counseling given by school personnel is principally geared toward the resolution of scholastic, occupational, and personal problems rather than those associated with physical health.

Nurses report they regard student guidance, counseling, and follow-up care as their most important functions in meeting health needs. Research shows the student with emotional or physical problems is more likely to discuss these with a nurse or doctor than others more directly associated with the school.

Sometimes regular school personnel do not recognize and understand mental problems of students. What may be regarded as poor conduct leading to verbal lashings by principals does nothing more than create a more confused child and a greater problem. All children with serious problems should be referred for psychiatric examination with the same effort and concern as a visual test given the first grader.

The school nurse is the link between the health program and the child. She assists in coordinating nursing services with other phases of the program. She assists in planning and implementing a program in which public health procedures will be fully utilized for the students' benefit. She acts as an interpreter of the school health program in individual homes and acquaints appropriate school personnel with health problems encountered in the home. The nurse works with the school staff, the children, and the parents to see that safe and sanitary conditions are maintained in the school. She also aids the teaching staff in an advisory capacity in curriculum planning.

INTEGRATION OF HEALTH EDUCATION WITHIN THE CURRICULUM

The homemaking (home economics) teacher has an unexcelled opportunity to work both with the child and his parents. Industrial arts can provide emphasis upon the relationship between physical and mental health and in indivdual's occupational status. In the industrial arts laboratory, hazards can be minimized. Students can learn displays and visual interpretations, posters, and other illustrative materials can be prepared in art class.

English and speech classes can involve the subject of health education in both oral and written activities. Social studies classes can give emphasis to the importance of health to a nation; the history of medicine and dentistry can be embellished in social studies courses. In the subjects of science, the areas of integration are almost unlimited. Biology students can study disease and its control; plants, insects, and animals can be used as experimental instruments. In chemistry, water purification and the study of the causes of water pollution offer practical approaches to the achievement of greater knowledge of the subject. This is also true of students in general science courses and environmental studies.

Mathematics students can learn to calculate the cost of health insurance and the loss of state funds because of student absences as a result of illnesses. Charts and graphs can be used to illustrate mathematically the cost of illnesses. There is a veritable storehouse of literature suitable for health classes. Finally, the physical education classes present superb opportunities for studying the prevalence, the causes and the cures for ordinary illnesses.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Studies repeatedly indicate the correlation between early school problems and later juvenile delinquency. The school nurse's potential role in the prevention of junvenile delinquency has been largely untapped, probably because of people's association of nurses with physical illness. This image has carried over and still prevails in some schools today.

Social workers are important additions to the school health team. Psychiatric personnel and social workers are being increasingly welcomed into schools. The trend indicates an expansion of services in this phase of health services.

Since mental health is part of physical health, and both are related behavior, the school nurse plays a key role in detecting emotional problems early and in working with teachers and parents in a combined health and educational approach to the child's development. If emotional difficulties are not spotted before the child reaches junior high school age, corrective measures may be too late and serious delinquency may be the result.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

School health services vary considerably from one community to another and often they reflect differences in socio-economic structure, health attitudes, community values, geographic location, personnel, facilities and the school district's size and organization.

Minimal programs set by state requirements usually take two forms:

1. County, city, district superintendent, and the health officer work together in a joint program. The school administrator is responsible for the activities in the schools

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regarding daily health routine, initial screening for vision and hearing, health guidance and supervision. The health officer is responsible for health services as a part of the community program. In this way, the school program becomes a part of the community health program and vice versa. One important concern is over-emphasis on structure. The structure and organization should materialize as a result of coordination and cooperation of the schools and organizations (agencies) concerned.

2. A comprehensive health appraisal can be accomplished in seven steps:

* In addition to a physical exam, any plan to evaluate the health of children includes using a health inventory questionnaire filled out by the parents. The nurse reviews the questionnaire with the parents to check completeness and makes any necessary additions

* Vision examinations

* Audiometric examinations

* Laboratory screening including urine and hemoglobin tests

* The doctor's examination includes the usual diagnostic equipment such as the otoscope, ophthalmoscope, sphygmomanometer, stethoscope and reflex hammer.

* Physician's interview with the parents explaining findings and recommendations

* A conference between the parents and the school nurse giving each a chance to evaluate the other's judgement and to establish confidence. Teachers, administrators, nurses and physicians then meet to review and discuss findings and make recommendations

Parents appreciate thorough examinations of their children. The most frequent problems -- usually unsuspected by parents -- are nutritional disorders, visual defects, and hearing problems.

The follow-up is probably the most important aspect of the examination theory. Parents cannot be depended upon always to follow directions. A teacher-nurse conference remains the best follow-up as shown by the following objectives:

* It re-emphasizes the teacher's ability to assist through observations.

* The teacher's observations are evaluated.

* The teacher receives an interpretation of the medical findings and recommendations.

* It serves as an exchange in which each can relate what he knows about the child's special needs and problems in and out of school.

* Each observes progress in the case.

* Together, they agree on the next steps and the responsibilties involved.

Several ways exist for determining the health status of pupils. The teacher's daily health observations, school health days, a review of the health record data and informal talks with the parents, physician or nurse are the most common.

The health card should show the child's health record, teacher observations, school health day findings, dental status, audiometer results, nurse's records, physician's recommendations, conference results, absentee record for illness and any illnesses during non-school times. A health record is an integral part of a pupil's total cumulative record and each school must maintain a convenient, complete, accurate, and up-to-date health record for each student.

The complete record provides a systematic means of recording significant data from entrance through high school and in some areas through junior college. Social Security laws concerning a minor's physical disability makes these records important for future reference.

Records should include three types of information: medical findings and recommendations; measurements, comments and observations; and recommendations to the teacher, parents, and proper medical persons.

All medical records are highly confidential, personal, and should be treated with the highest ethical and professional standards. In some cases, records should not be relinquished without court order or subpoena.

Expansion of schools has caused many health records to be placed in a computer program. The average cost per student is high, but statistical information is available in seconds, and lower storage costs makes the idea a sound one for larger districts. (20:145-49)

HEALTH CAREERS

The need for health workers, or allied health personnel has become pronounced in the last two decades. Formerly, this work was reserved for medical doctors. This has been expanded to include many professional and paraprofessional workers. Contemporary health programs involve a complex of skilled personnel, including increasing numbers of technologists, technicians, and assistants. These, with doctors and nurses, constitute what is now known as the health team. This has changed to the extent that for every physician there are now over a dozen allied health workers. Thus, the nurse, who was once the only allied resource for the doctor, tends to become a coordinator of the health team.

Both the medical profession and some states seek to regulate the quality of preparation of the allied workers through certification. Inservice or refresher courses are needed. A strength is the growing practice of institutions which developed a core curriculum for health workers, which contains the essence of all skills and knowledges needed for allied health workers. Continuing education is needed to keep training up-to-date with practice.

Health careers provide for students in high school and college a rapidly growing number of occupational choices. In the last decade over 50 new health occupations have been initiated. Still the demand for allied health workers has not yet been met.

The extent of the education requirements for these occupations vary greatly. Many vocational and technical schools have one or two year programs that count toward high school graduation and make them elegible for allied health positions. Other preparation programs require high school graduation for admission and prepare for some health jobs in one or two year programs. The largest (in numbers) of these programs is one preparing vocational or practical nurses. Junior and community colleges are increasing their offerings in this field. Many of these institutions offer associate degrees in one or more specialities. Many hospitals offer education programs to prepare allied health. One program is the three year nursing program, the objective of which is to get the student ready to take the state examination for nurses.

Technological developments are creating demands for education of personnel for specialized functions, such as medical laboratory technicians, X-ray technicians, radiologists, and clinical therapy technicians. Increasingly, high schools, junior and senior colleges, and universities are teaming up to assure the preparation of competent allied health workers. The enactment of the Allied Health Professions Act of 1966 gave stimulation to the growth of this practice. By 1968, health services had become the second largest in the country. It is predicted that the cost of health services will increase from $50 billion in 1968 to over $70 billion in the 80's. The number of health workers will increase to over 10 percent of the nation's work force in the 1980's. The number of allied workers per physician will increase to 20 or 25. These occupations will grow and offer great opportunities for employment.

The increasingly complex and changing nature of occupations in our modern society makes it imperative that young persons on the threshold of planning for a career be fully cognizant not only of many career opportunities open to them, but of the working conditions, opportunities, and prospects in these occupations.

Currently the trend is for the total school program to become involved in helping young people choose career goals. By cooperative efforts with private associations and groups, the schools, along with other governmental agencies, can provide the experience and knowledge necessary to inform students of the career opportunities in the area of allied health. A coordinated and enlightened approach to the youth of our nation must be made by counselors, guidance personnel, and teachers to produce a sound, effective and comprehensive presentation of selected health careers. These expanding opportunities should be a part of the public school program.

HEALTH EDUCATION

Health education currently has been defined as a process with intellectual, psychological, and social dimensions relating to activities which increase the abilities of people to make informed decisions affecting their personal, family, and community well being. This process, based on scientific principles, facilitates learning and behavioral change in both health personnel and consumers, including children and youth.

Health education is an applied science which is multi-disciplinary, both as to content and methodology. The content is drawn from physical, biological, and the medical fields while the methodology relies upon the behavioral sciences such as psychology and sociology. Perhaps, because of previous misconceptions, it might be better to look at what health education is not.

1. It is not just brushing teeth and personal hygiene.
2. It is not physical education.
3. It is not first aid and safety.
4. It is not a watered-down biology course in anatomy and physiology.
5. It is not showing films with an occasional talk by the school nurse.

Recent trends in health service and health education suggest that public school should re-examine the total health program. National studies have pointed out a need for an increased emphasis in health education. The instructional programs carried on within the school curricula are essential components of comprehensive programs for preserving and promoting the health of all citizens. The health of everyone depends on our awareness of the knowledge that is available to us. School-age children are especially susceptible to ideas and changing behavioral patterns which make the instruction of health education vitally important.

A national survey, "The School Health Education Study," revealed inadequacies in health education in both elementary and secondary schools. Listed below are some of the most revealing observations:

1. Lack of adequately trained teachers.
2. Extreme lack of trained supervisors and cooridinators.
3. Lack of adequate time for health education instruction.
4. Lack of adequate facilities and instructional materials.
5. Lack of cooperation and coordinaion in correlated programs.
6. Lack of integrated classes (by sex) at the secondary level.
7. Lack of enforcement of mandatory state regulations

concerning the teaching of health.

8. Resistance and apathy of teachers.

9. Indifference and low priority of health among school administrators. No enforced state regulations in this area.

10. Difficulties in Building student interest and involvement.

11. Parental resistance and indifference.

The study further suggested that without proper coordination, a sequential program, which is essential to a good health education instructional curriculum, is extremely difficult to obtain.

Resolutions endorsed by the National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, National Congress for Parents and Teachers, American Medical Association, American Pediatrics Association, Council of Chief State School Officers, National School Boards Association, and National Association of State Boards of Education have urged the develoopment of comprehensive health education programs as an essential part of every school program. This recognition and acceptance of health education by both the medical and educational professions as a basic responsibility of schools requires a carefully planned curriculum in health education which will provide a substantive basis upon which values may be developed, meaningful decisions made, and constructive action taken concerning personal, family, and community health.

It is imperative that health education teachers be well prepared, if quality health education programs are to be developed and implemented. Separate certification for the health education teacher is important to the preparation of competent teachers for this responsibility. As comprehensive school health education programs continue to be developed in response to state legislation or department of education regulations, and as health courses are being accepted on the same basis as other academic subjects, there will be a growing need and demand for certified health education specialists.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation endorses the development of certification programs in health education and urges that:

1. Each state department of education establish health education as an academic subject area.

2. All states develop health education certification

standards requiring separate subject area preparation for health education teachers.

3. Health education certification requirements include preparation in: physical, biological and behavioral sciences; methodology; use of educational materials, communication skills; in-depth knowledge of a variety of health content are as they relate to the individual, the family unity, and community group; and the successful completion of a student or intern teaching experience in health education.

4. School systems move toward the development and implementation of comprehensive health education programs, the designation of health coordinators, and the employment of full-time health education teachers. (3)

Many states have initiated similar requirements with resultant improvement of their comprehensive school health programs. Within the state of Texas, for example, there are now eighteen institutions of higher learning that offer teacher certification in health education. Ten institutions are offering baccalaureate degrees in health education. This trend toward emphasis in health education and specially prepared personnel is recognizable nationally.

To help the administrator evaluate the health education teachers, an evaluative instrument has been prepared by the President's Committee on Health Education of the Texas Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

The major content areas suggested for any comprehensive school health education program are as follows:

Consumer Health

Chronic and Degenerative Diseases

Communicable Diseases

Environmental Health and Safety

Community Health

Health and Fitness for Daily Living

Nutrition

Sex Education for Family Living

Use and Abuse of Tobacco, Alcohol and Drugs

All of the topics are of equal importance in the overall health instructional program. Because of national scope and public concern, special attention is given to drug abuse, mental health, venereal disease, and the role of health education as it relates to the career opportunities in the allied health area. The bibliography includes extensive references to these subjects.

DRUG USE AND ABUSE

Throughout the past decade, health related problems have received increasingly greater amounts of public attention. The area of drug use and abuse has become paramount not only for individual communities, but for the nation as a whole. This fact was exemplified by the President's formation of a special office to the President to concern itself with the drug problem. The problem has crossed international boarders as evidence by the fact that one complete issue of World Health (the magazine of the World Health Organazation) was devoted to drug misuse and its implications.

Statement of the Problem

The Public Health Officials have clssified drug abuse as being epidemic in proportion. Many people feel that the current increase is an unusual phenomenon -- a new experience for our civilization. Many conclude that the increase in drug use now seen is an integral part of our developing culture, and to eliminate it will require major changes in some of our beliefs and attitudes. The increasing pervasiveness of drug use in practically all segments of society and the multiplicity of substances used by the average consumer is alarming.

Many reasons why people use drugs have been conjectured, including the ideal that the United States has become a society in which the use of mind-alerting substances is institutionalized and people are conditioned to relate to other human beings or to deal with all pains, problems, and troubles through the use of drugs. To many, young and old, drug use is "where it's at," the quickest way to alleviate pain and being unable to cope in a complex and painful environment. Other reasons have included alientation, medical reasons, rebellion, search for self, escape from reality, sexual identification, peer pressure, and pleasure or for "fun". With so many drugs readily available, it becomes understandable why increasing numbers of people are turning to the use of drugs if they are trying to avoid many of the problems suggested above. In 1970, Dr. Stanly Yolles, the director of The National Institute of Mental Health, predicted a one hundred-fold increase over the next ten years in the number and type of drugs that would affect the mind. His estimate has been exceeded in the 1980's.

In the United States there prevails a laissez-faire attitude toward alcohol and tobacco use while use of other drugs may result in severe criminal penalties. Some contend that this factor alone accounts for the failure of most antidrug efforts. The fact that drug controls are being debated at all levels of government reflects the epidemic status of drug abuse.

In the United States today, one out of every nine adults, or at least 10 million persons abuses alcohol. Alcoholism ranks with heart disease, cancer, and mental illness as today's major health problems. Alcoholism effects everyone -- in the home, on the job, and in the community.

In 1980, Alcoholism resulted in an approximate $60 Billion loss nationwide...

When a member of a family is an alcoholic, the whole family suffers. Problem drinkers have a seven times greater likelihood of being separated or divorced... With one alcoholic parent, a child has a 25 percent chance of becoming alcoholic; with two alcoholic parents, the child has a 50-50 chance of becoming alcoholic. (2:15)

Many contend that we did not become concerned about the problem until it moved out of the city ghettos and into the suburbs. Now the abuser is no longer just the underprivileged Black or Mexican-American. He may just as easily be the middle-aged pill-taker or the drug dependent teenager from the upper middle class and the well-to-do society. There are some suggestions that drug use is more extensive among the Anglo middle class than among the other ethnic groups.

School district officials of many large cities are concerned over the fact that studies show that over half of all high school seniors have used illegal drugs other than alcohol and nicotine by the time they graduate, and 95 percent had used illegal alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana. Alcohol is undoubtedly the most troublesome drug, considering the sheer impact of the destroyed health, drunk driving, ruined careers, broken families, and associated misery that it has inflicted on society. More than half of the highway deaths each year are attributed to the use of alcohol. Tobacco is smoked by some 60 million Americans, although cigarette smoking has been shown to be a major contributor to a number of diseases. Tobacco use is socially acceptable, encouraged, and available to everyone, with few restrictions.

Studies also have indicated that there is a higher incidence of abuse among those who have dropped out of school. Heroin use has, in particular, been reported as being more prevalent among this group. Authorities vary as to the frequency of heroin use in the United States, but recently most estimate the range of heroin addicts is from 250,000 to 400,000 with half of these residing in New York City and the rest are scattered throughout the country, mainly in the largest cities. Of this number, it is estimated that 40% are Black, 12% Puerto Rican, and 15% Mexican American. Over 20% have been listed as "other whites". It must be remembered that these figures are influenced by New York City since well over half of the addicts reside there. Therefore, the above estimates cannot and should not be projected to other areas of the country. Characteristically, the heroin abusers are mostly men in their twenties and thirties from minorities and the lower socio-economic level. The majority report heroin experimentation started in their adolescent years.

Drug Education

The realization that drug abuse is not just a passing adolescent fad has forced drug education into the public schools which left many educators in a quandry as to what materials and activities to use.

For many years most schools were not overly concerned with drug abuse or drug education. However, now they are facing an increasing number of drug related incidents among their students. The public, parents particularly, is asking for and, in some cases, demanding that public schools teach drug education, help curb the rise in drug abuse, and give guidance to students with drug problems. In some states, state governmental bodies have decreed that schools must develop and implement a drug education program for K-12 grades but have given few guidelines and directions for developing these curricula.

For the most part, educators are not knowledgeable of drug abuse and are unable to cope with the difference in attitude of young people toward drug use. Therefore, in many schools the result has been an emotional, scare tactic approach to the problem. Because of this "crisis orientation" influence, many unproven, stop-gap approaches have been tried. Hence, the largest problem hampering public schools seems to be that most research and experimental programs have not been in existence long enough for the results to be validated. It is imperative, therefore, that when schools are in the process of developing a drug education program specific to their situation, they need to have available to them information pertaining to programs that have proven to be successful.

One author listed the following truisms that educators must be aware of when they are designing and developing a school drug education program:

1. Many students will consider the teacher "out of tune with the times".

2. Teachers and counselors will not be prepared to either teach or counsel about the use of drugs.

3. Drug education must be a part of the regular health course if it is to receive the long-term emphasis necessary to understanding the relation of drugs to health.

4. Many young people are impatient, demanding, and resentful of any approach that smacks of moralizing.

5. The universal use of drugs gives it an air of acceptability with most youth.

6. Youths are impetuous; even the mention of drugs may trigger experimentation. (5:117-119)

It is important to keep in mind that the drug controversy is not something that will be a problem solved in this decade, or even this century. There have always been and will always be individuals who use chemicl substances to alter their consciousness. What may change, however, are the attitudes people have about their own drug usage and the approach society as a whole will take toward drugs and those who use them. If education about drugs is looked upon as a means whereby we can eliminate the problem of junkies and pushers, acid-heads and speed-freaks, winos and alcoholics, and an alienate generation, we are chasing after a false illusion. Our goal should be to communicate a factual understanding of drugs and their effect on the body and behavior as well as to communicate with the student in terms of feelings, self-perception, identification, problems, and the everyday hassles of school, peer groups, home, and growing to maturity.

MENTAL HEALTH

Each of us, in our lifetime, will probably have at least one experience with someone who is emotionally or mentally disturbed. It may be a relative who consistently behaves inappropriately or who always seems to make himself and others unhappy. It may be a stranger who confronts us, or we ourselves may experience an emotional disturbance which at least temporarily inhibits satisfactory adjustment to our social environment. Mental illness is a frequently observed fact of life. It was so in ancient times and seems especially significant in our present society. No one is completely immune to the pressures and environmental situations that produce stresses which contribute to mental and emotional disturbances. Manifestations of these disturbances can be observed in a broad range of behavioral patterns. Therefore, they are not easily detected or diagnosed as are most physical diseases.

The borderline between good mental health and mental or emotional illness is vague, and may shift with the changing values and attitudes of the particular society in which one lives. That is, behavior which may have been regarded at one time as abnormal may be interpreted as an appropriate response to the present environmental conditions. Societies have been just as irrational in their acceptance and understanding of these "abnormal" behaviors.

In earlier times and in different cultures, people with mental disturbances have been considered to be either possessed by evil spirits or especially gifted by the gods. Presently, the term "mental disturbance" may refer to anybody from the middle aged state hospital "back ward" schizophrenic, the institutionalized mentally retarded child, or the habitual criminal. Medically, the current trend is to accept mental illness much the same as we have accepted physical illnesses with regard to our attitude and understanding. The public, however, still has difficulty accepting mental disturbances. This was demonstrated in 1972 by the controversy surrounding the nomination of Senator Thomas Eagleton as the Democratic vice-presidential candidate. When it was revealed that Eagleton had been treated for mental disturbance, he was forced to withdraw his candidacy.

Statement of the Problem

The mental phase of health today as never had greater meaning. The tremendous anxieties, pressures, and concerns in the world have their effect on adults and children. The average individual must contend with a number of frustrations and conflicts in his lifetime. Often these frustrations are the natural result of living in a society. The demands or expectations of that society are sometimes contradictory to the individual's personal code of behavior.

In our society, for example, a person is encouraged to compete and achieve success, usually in terms of material accumulations. In fact, his worth as a person is often measured in terms of this kind of success. The stress on materialism, the tensions over world peace, the need for good grades, and the inadequacies of educational opportunities are just a few examples of factors which create a social climate conducive to mental illness. It is imperative that schools recognize these kinds of conditions and that teachers discern their roles in the promotion and maintenance of good mental health.

Throughout the United States and the world, mental illnesses are a major cause of disability. The mentally ill constitute almost half of all patients in the hospitals of the United States. Federal and state governments of the United States maintain almost half a million hospital beds for patients with mental illnesses. Of all rejections for and separations from military service, more than half are based on mental defects, failure to attain intellectual standards, and psychological difficulties. J.R. Cornacchis listed the following estimates pertaining to the mental health problem in the United States:

1. That 20 million people are suffering from some form of mental or emotional illness; approximately one in ten people.

2. That 1 person in 15 of those mentally ill will need hospitalization.

3. That 30-60% of the patients who consult doctors have complaints in part due to emotional disturbances.

4. That 500,000 children suffer from psychoses and borderline psychotic conditions.

5. That 1 million children are afflicted with personality disorders.

6. That 1 in 3 of the 15 million youngsters reared in poverty have serious mental and emotional problems.

7. That 6 million children and adults are mentally retarded -- 30 per 1,000; approximately 2 million are under 16 years old. (5:121:122)

In addition to this, mental illness is frequently a component of alcoholism , drug addiction, junvenile delinquency, divorce, suicide, and other emotional maladjustment and personality disorders. Mental illness is found in children as well as in adults. It has been estimated that approximately 10 percent of all pupils have emotional problems and maladjustments requiring psychiatric help, with an additional 3 percent having serious psychotic or prepsychotic conditions.

Definition of Mental Health

Mental health has been defined as a healthy psychological state characterized by feeling confortable about oneself, feeling right about others, and being able to meet demands of life. Although it is very difficult to explicitly define mental health to the satisfaction of everyone, certain guidelines to determine healthy emotional and mental attitudes and behavior may be used. According to the National Association for Mental Health, people with good mental health exhibit the following traits :

1. They feel confortable about themselves.
    a. They are not bowled over by their emotions - by their fears, anger, love, jealousy, guilt, or worries.
    b. They can take life's disappointments in their stride.

- c. They have a tolerant, easy-going attitude toward themselves as well as others; they can laugh at themselves.
- d. They neither underestimate or overestimate their abilities.
- e. They can accept their own shortcomings.
- f. They have self-respect.
- g. They feel able to deal with most situations that come their way.
- h. They get satisfaction form the simple, everyday pleasures.

2. They feel right about other people.
    - a. They are able to give love and to consider the interests of others.
    - b. They have personal relationships that are satisfying and lasting.
    - c. They expect to like and trust others, and take it for granted that others will like and trust them.
    - d. They respect the many differences they find in people.
    - e. They do not push people around, nor do they allow themselves to be pushed around.
    - f. They can feel they are a part of a group.
    - g. They feel a sense of responsibility to their neighbors and fellow men.
3. They are able to meet the demands of life.
    - a. They do something about their problems as they arise.
    - b. They accept their responsibilities.
    - c. They shape their environment whenever possible; they adjust to it whenever necessary.
    - d. They plan ahead but do not fear the future.
    - e. They welcome new experiences and new ideas.

f. They make use of their natural capacities.

g. They set realistic goals for themselves.

h. They are able to think for themselves and make their own decisions.

i. They put their best effort into what they do, and get satisfaction out of doing it.

It is obvious that these are just guidelines to characteristics, since any one individual would have difficulty conforming to all traits listed. But the list does suggest that mental health is far more than the absence of mental illness commonly thought of in terms of psychoses, neuroses, and psychosomatic and character disorders. Happiness, peace of mind, satisfaction in achievement, and the enjoyment of life are all aspects of mental health. A person who possesses good mental health gets along well with himself and with most others. He meets adequately the numerous small irritations of every day, along with the occasional major problems. He is able to pursue realistic goals effectively, to live confortably with others and to achieve satisfaction in doing work. A publication of the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health views mental health under six headings : 1) Attitudes toward self; 2) Self-fulfillment; 3) Integration; 4) Autonomy; 5) Perception of reality; and 6) Relationship to the environment.

Mental illness is a condition that grows over a period of time; it results from the exposure to many experiences and environments. Its start is difficult, if not impossible, to determine. The body can withstand within reason, fear, anxiety, worry, and other stressful conditions. However, when stress becomes extreme, the individual can no longer tolerate these conditions; consequently he becomes disorganized, disoriented, and maladjusted.

A Contemporary puzzle is the previlence of suicides among young people. This is highlighted by the successive occurences of six suicides and several attempts in one location, Plano, Texas, beginning in February, 1983. (10:1) This is not unlike other more scattered youth suicides over the nation. Mental health among children and youths is a problem for discussion and observation in schools.

Implications for the School Administrator

The school is usually thought to rank second to the family as the most important unit in society affecting the mental health of children. When viewing the behavior of a student in school, it must be remembered that the child has been exposed from five to eight years to parents and others before he reached school. Therefore, the roots for mental illness may have already been planted and may blossom in school when the pupil is faced with an additional unsatisfying or trying atmosphere. Educational failure is one of the underlying factors that triggers acting out in school and exhibits itself in terms such as depression, drug abuse, truancy, and other maladjustments.

The experiences to which a child is exposed can help prevent serious difficulties or such problems. Hence, schools play an important role in the prevention and control of mental illness. Early identification of children with emotional difficulties is important because help can be provided at a time when intervention is maximally effective. A study by Abrams, et al. suggests that special consideration be given to children from ghetto and deprived areas with relationship to their need to achieve success in the school setting. He found a large percentage of these children were already educationally handicapped in terms of readiness, or probable readiness, to enter school. (1:137-141)

The administrator should keep in mind that the school is the only agency outside the home that reaches practically all youths. Therefore, the school program in mental health should attempt to promote positive mental health in all students, prevent mental illness and emotional disturbances, and assist children with mental health problems. Every activity in school has mental health implications. The following are just a few examples: the atmosphere in the classroom and in the total school program, the relationships of the school with parents, the methods used in teaching, the content of the curriculum, the procedures used to handle discipline, and the use of health examinations and health screening tests. The nature and scope of the program should be patterned after the components of the total school health program and include the following:

Mental health services :

1. Locating problem children

2. Helping problem children

   a. Counseling and guidance
   b. Use of community resources
   c. Adjustment of school program
   d. Mentally healthful environment

e. Mental health instruction
f. Coordination of mental health program
(9:121)

VENEREAL DISEASE

For too many years venereal disease education has been excluded froom many school curricula because it was too controversial. It has been considered a social problem which schools should avoid. School should provide an education, no a panacea for social ills.

Venereal disease (VD) is a serious public health problem. Even a casual look at recent statistics substantiates this. For example, in one year the State Department of Health reported 64,210 cases of gonorrhea and 5,349 cases of syphillis in Texas. Nationally, the figures were 925,973 cases of gonorrhea and 89,900 cases of syphillis. Of great importance to educators is the fact that 86% of these cases occur in the 15-29 year age group.

Two relatively new diseases are attracting national attention. These are AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) and herpes simples virus. Health educators must include these diseases in their instructional programs. (See bibliography for more information.)

Administrators must realize that syphillis and gonorrhea are communicable diseases, not social diseases. It must be recognized that these diseases can (and probably will) infect any student. It is no respector of race, color, sex, or socio-economic status. Because this is true, an effort must be made ot include VD education in the curriculum.

Of great concern to many administrators is when and where VD information should be disseminated. The National Commission of VD recommends that VD education should be offered no later than grade seven. Most authorities agree that sometime during middle school (grades 6, 7, or 8) young people should receive information about the venereal diseases. A logical place for it to be taught would be in a health education class. This must be an individual who is well informed about venereal disease and one who relates well to students. If these criteria are met, the information may be include in any class where content is appropriate -- biology, science, home economics, health education, or physical education. The important point here is that instruction must be vested in one or more of these curricula; otherwise everybody's responsibility is nobody's.

Many resources are available to assist schools and teachers in the area of VD education. Among those which should be considered include:

1. Local units of the State Department of Health.
2. Venereal Disease Division of the State Department of Health.
3. Local physicians and nurses.
4. Health educators at colleges and universities.
5. Workships for VD education sponsored by both the Health Department and the State Education Agency.

It is the administrator's role to provide the impetus for the organization and initiation of a viable program about venereal diseases.

THE FUTURE OF HEALTH EDUCATION

In the past, health education programs have clustered around categories such as : alcohol, drugs and narcotics, sex relationships, communicable diseases, cleanliness and grooming, community health, consumer health, dental health, environmental health, family life, health careers, mental health, nutrition, posture, safety, smoking, structure and functions of the human body, VD, and vision and hearing.

The Health Education Commission has presented new thrusts in health education services. These are :

- * Accident prevention
- * Aging
- * Alcohol
- * Disaster preparedness
- * Disease and disease control
- * Economics of health care
- * Ionizing radiation
- * Family health
- * International health (health of travelers)
- * Epidemics
- * Malnutrition
- * Mental Health
- * Smoking
- * Drugs

* Evaluation of health
* Environmental conditions
* Plagues
* Nutrition

As for the role of research in the future of health education, one writer has listed the following:

1. To promote professional unity in health education.
2. To stimulate the devlopment of integrated community and health education programs.
3. To improve health teaching in schools and colleges.
4. To recruit, prepare, and place more good health educators.
5. To launch a well-organized public and school health education drive.
6. To develop modernized health-science spiral curricula in schools.

(13:957-960)

Health education in the public schools has the opportunity and responsibility to be a major segment of the curriculum in the future.

Another approach would be the formation of departments of health studies in colleges of arts and sciences. These departments could provide the content for health education, and schools of education could provide the professional and technical aspects for school health education. Health education would not be a department of a school of education, but rather become a teaching field similar to mathematics, biology or history. The only links to schools of health, physical education and recreation are those of tradition. These three areas of studies share a common interest in contributing to the mental, emotional, and physical well-being of individuals, but are significantly different in their foci. In order to grow and prosper, health education should possibly break from tradition and develop a philosophical base that would provide the direction for the academic pursuit of health knowledge. (15:531)

Health education programs should become a separate and distinct department in schools of education or be housed in the health sciences or schools of public health. Separate curriculums, separate financing, and distinct administrative leadership can offer many advantages to collective educational efforts : an increase in professional pride, more and diversified opportunities to expand curricular offerings and more opportunities to advance as a distinct professional discipline. (8:604)

What happens to health education in the future, will, to a great extent, be determined by what happens to society in the coming years and by the role that education in general plays within the society. (16:632)

The most likely future for health education is seen as one in which the quality of program offerings in schools will be largely determined by the attitudes and values of the chief administrator in the schools. (16:635)

Comprehensive health education will be a long way off, and we will continue to set priorities and respond to crises as we have done so often in the past. Current economic conditions will require that we focus on "essentials". Unfortunately, "Essentials" will be defined more often for health educators than by health educators. (16:635)

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Probably no other school special service area works as closely with the community as does the health services and health education program. In organizing and implementing all phases of the school health program, school representatives, community-county health units, doctors, dentists, medical associations, and parent groups work together. In fact, they must work together to accomplish a worthwhile program.

School health personnel cannot be content with the necessary structured program and its operations. They must go a step further to inform the school's publics of their role, progress, accomplishments, desires, long-range goals, and their service to the community's school children.

By working with pupils and staff members, the school nurse and health education specialists can interpret the school health program to parents and taxpayers. Their positions require much technical know-how, plus considerable skill in human and public relations. They are able to project a better understanding of personal and community health, as well as improve attitudes and health practices. The total health program holds a key position in the public's opinion of the school system.

REMINDERS

In summary, the most important aspect of the school health program is the nurse. On her rests the success or failure of even the best organized program. She must have the following to do an effective job:

NUTRITIONIST
DENTIST
NURSE
PARENTS

* Parent's signature obtained each year on forms with information on addresses, parent's telephone numbers at home and at work, and who should be called if parents cannot be reached, and the name of the family doctor and authority for taking the child to another doctor in the event that neither the family doctor nor parents can be located.

* Medical authorization - written standing orders - for the care of children while they are in school.

* Authority to transport children in the event parents are unavailable to assume responsibility.

* Emergency programs written and properly designated.

* The active support of the administration, board of education, parents, the community, and medical groups.

Similarly, the health education specialist must be able to relate the health problems of the community to the students. This person must have the ability to communicate with the students and be able to use and coordinate the school's resources as well as those of the community in order to develop a meaningful and relevant health education program.

EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

Any program in a school system should be evaluated for its success or failures; its strengths and weaknesses. By taking a keen look at the program, an assessment can be made. Weaknesses can be points of departure for improvement. Failures can be eliminated.

An evaluation can be conducted to assess individual, group, and societal needs for the purpose of determining the health content of the instructional program. Evaluation makes it possible to determine strengths and weaknesses of the instructional program in terms of the abilities of teaching personnel, the effectiveness of learning opportunities (Including activities and human and material resources), and the organization of health instruction. Evaluation can be conducted to determine the extent to which students attain specified objectives. Much has been said about the need for influencing health attitudes. If health educatiors are to do more than pay lip service to developing positive health attitudes (affective behavior), an attempt must be made to assess changes in the affective realm of behavior -- attentive or being receptive, responding or being impressed, and valuing or rating highly. (11:109)

This should be a purposeful, well-organized effort. Sometimes a self-study is sufficient. Periodically, outside consultants should be used. An instrument for the evaluation of school health services is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services. (12) It is composed of criteria divided into four major topics : organizations and administration; health education; health services; and healthful school environment. The instrument is designed for self-evaluation, evaluation by consultants or guidelines for establishing health services policies.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for HEALTH SERVICES

1. How should student health problems be systematically identified?

2. Describe the regular in-school examinations in the areas of sight, hearing, dental, throat, and physical-motor?

3. How should parents be informed or potential health problem areas?

4. What should comprise the health education curriculum? Elementary? Secondary?

5. What kind of facilities should the Health Services program have?

6. What are the determining factors in the decision to close a school or system because of prevalance of illness?

7. A student is having sight problems, yet the parents do not, because of economic difficulties, provide a medical examination which would possibly result in an eyeglass prescription. What would you do as the administrator?

8. A student is "rumored" to have VD. As the administrator what would you do to (a) determine the accuracy of the information, (b) squelch the rumor (if it is such), (c) take precautionary measures, remedy the personal situation?

9. Describe the role of the school nurse in the total health program and services? What are the limitations?

10. What inservice activities should be planned for school personnel relating to health education?

11. What administrative procedures should be followed if a student is suspected of being "high" on drugs (including alcohol)?

MAINTENANCE SERVICES

CHAPTER VI

MAINTENANCE SERVICES

Problems and responsibilities related to custodial and maintenance in schools were as real and difficult in yesteryear as they are today. Physical facilities have changed; technologies have changed; and personnel have changed. However, the basic goal of school maintenance services remains timeless. Only the magnitude of this goal and its successful accomplishment have been greatly expanded over the years. The arduous task of maintaining facilities that provide for the most effective learning environment is still the focal point of SCHOOL MAINTENANCE SERVICES.

NATURE

The duties and responsibilities of the school custodian and maintenance personnel are of immense importance. The Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds may be in a position to affect the operation of $6 million worth of sophisticated equipment, much less be in charge of a building worth $15 million. (1:66) Indirectly the school custodian is responsible for the priceless lives of hundreds of children and their teachers, as their lives relate to the proper operation of the school plant. (2:356) Complexity of new equipment, diversity in school design, and magnitude of operation have placed school maintenance as a primary area of concern not only in the eyes of the administrator but in the eyes of the school board and the community as well. In administrating the maintenance program within a school, the administrator should not allow himself to become victim to the false premise that maintenance will take care of itself. The complexity and difficulty of school plant maintenance are areas in which administrators must fully realize the significance and impact. The quality of the school maintenance and custodial program has a direct and consequential effect on the educational process.

SCOPE

Maintenance of the school plant is no longer accomplished by allowing custodial personnel free reign and a haphazard method of accomplishing their tasks. Rather, it is a systematic organization and administration of all resources available to continually keep the school plant and its equipment in good operational condition and in such a manner that the work of the maintenance personnel contribute to the educational atmosphere. N.L. George cites seven primary objectives of school plant maintenance: (4:3-4)

1) Protection of Property - the school administrator has a major responsibility in maintaining the public investment for which he has been made accountable.

2) Continued Use - the school facilities should be in a state of readiness for each and every day of school.

3) Attractiveness - the successful accomplishment of this objective lends itself to increased pride by students, faculty, and the community alike.

4) Healthful Conditions - proper temperature control, lighting, and correct use of facilities should be managed as to guard against an unhealthful atmosphere.

5) Safety - the welfare of all who come into contact with the school school should be considered as an important aspect of maintenance operations.

6) Value as Learning Laboratory - an efficient maintenance program will provide educational facilities that readily lend themselves to the learning experience .

7) Economics - management of the school plant maintenance program through efficient use of custodial services and effective planning of timing and scheduling can significantly reduce maintenance costs.

PERSONNEL

Effective management of personnel is of prime importance in administrating school maintenance services. The discerning school administrator recognizes the importance of the school custodian as a co-worker in providing optimum conditions for educational development. To affect such conditions, the control of the environmental influences must be maintained at the proper level. The role of school

maintenance personnel in this regard is direct and obvious, and its importance should be exploited at every available opportunity. The term "janitor" no longer has a place in the terminology of school maintenance sevices. "Custodian" is a more respectable title for the position. The relative lack of importance associated with the term "janitor" by public acceptance does not provide sufficient prestige or earned respect consistent with the duties and responsibilities. Other personnel should be identified according to duties performed, such as carpenter, plumber, electrician, etc. Positions which include supervision should have up-graded titles. The role of school maintenance personnel is coordinate with other school employees and should be recognized accordingly.

Line Organization

The Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds may have different reporting personnel in the organization. More than 78% of all districts have a Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds. Of those, 58.6% report directly to the superintendent and 41.4% report to the Assistant Superintendent or the Business Manager. (1:69) Depending on the size and operation of the school plant, custodial and maintenance personnel should be responsible to their respective supervisors who are in turn responsible to the principal. The principal is then responsible to the superintendent and the superintendent answers to the board of education. School maintenance personnel should never be made directly responsible to the school board. Figures 1,2,3, and 4 illustrate sound organizational structures for regulating the flow of responsibility in schools of various sizes. In smaller schools, maintenance personnel may be directed by the superintendent, who may in turn be acting as principal and sometimes part-time teacher.

Qualifications - Human Relations - Employment

Understanding the importance of school maintenance personnel and their impact on the learning environment, selectioon of these personnel should be done similar to that of teachers. Specific criteria and specifications of desired characteristics should be established by a representation of the professional school staff and members of the board of education. These considerations of required attributes should be the result of mutual agreement by all parties.

ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL MAINTENANCE SERVICES IN SMALL SCHOOL DISTRICTS

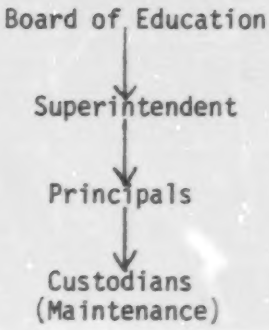

Board of Education
Superintendent
Principals
Custodians
(Maintenance)

FIGURE 1

ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL MAINTENANCE SERVICES IN AVERAGE SIZE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

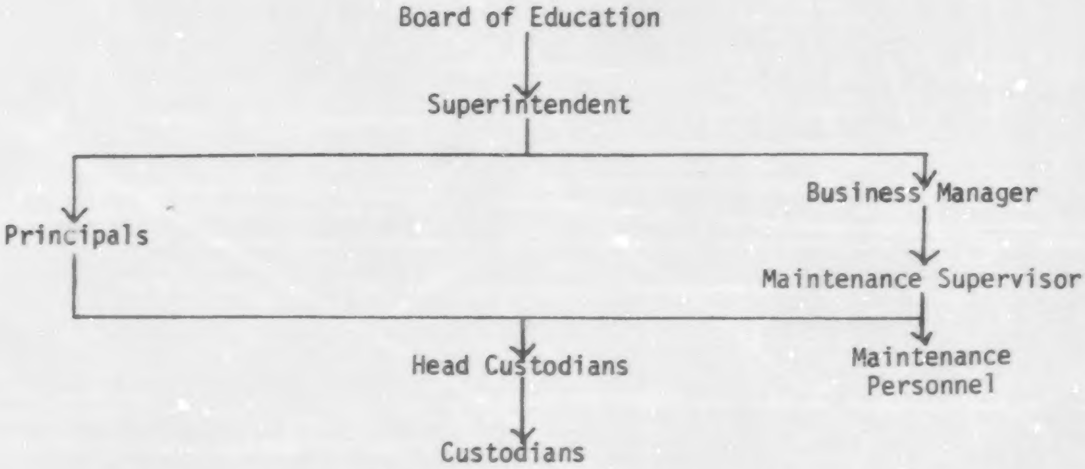

Board of Education
Superintendent
Principals
Business Manager
Maintenance Supervisor
Head Custodians
Maintenance
Personnel
Custodians

FIGURE 2

ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL MAINTENANCE SERVICES IN LARGE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

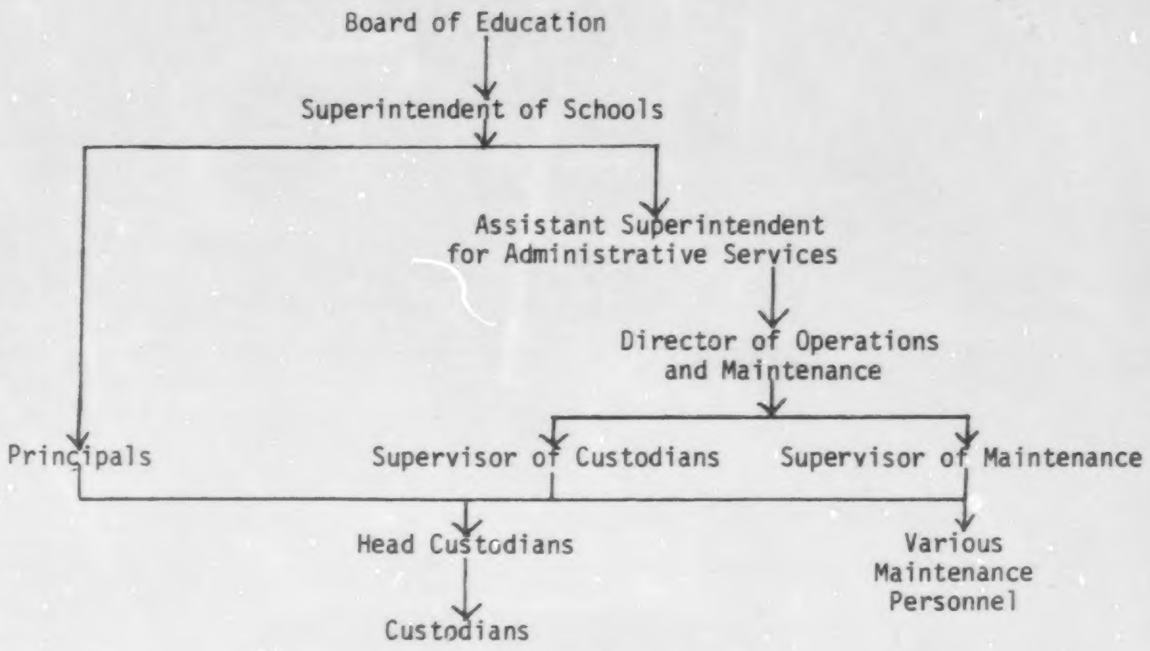

Board of Education
Superintendent of Schools
Assistant Superintendent for Administrative Services
Director of Operations and Maintenance
Principals
Supervisor of Custodians
Supervisor of Maintenance
Head Custodians
Various Maintenance Personnel
Custodians

FIGURE 3

ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL MAINTENANCE SERVICES IN LARGE SCHOOL DISTRICT (WITH LARGE BUILDINGS)

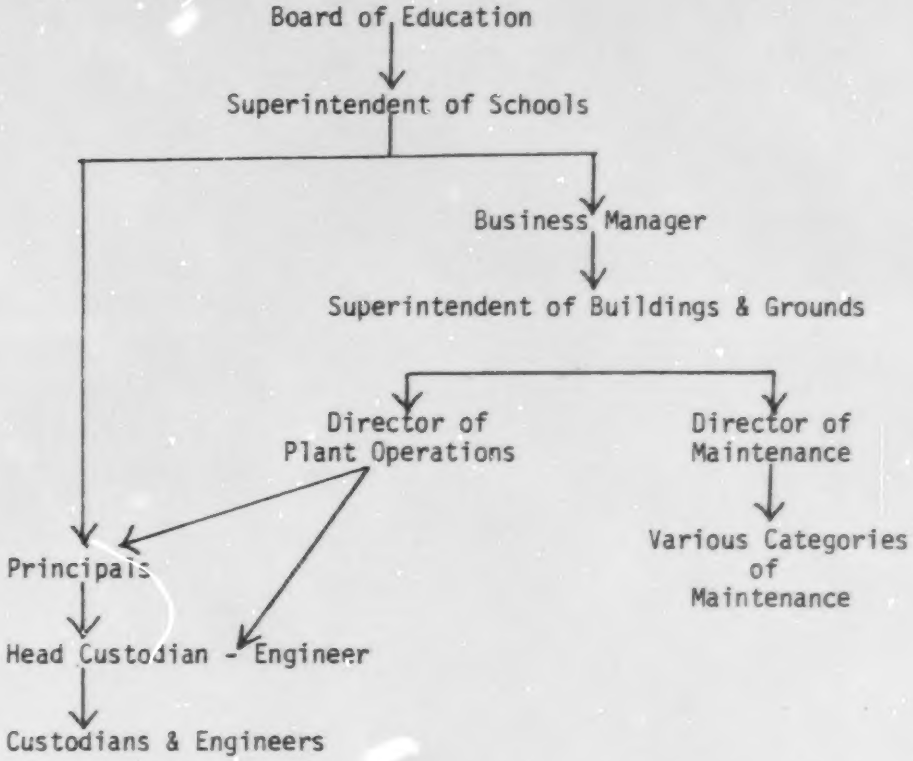

Board of Education
Superintendent of Schools
Business Manager
Superintendent of Buildings & Grounds
Director of Plant Operations
Director of Maintenance
Principals
Various Categories of Maintenance
Head Custodian - Engineer
Custodians & Engineers

FIGURE 4

having direct contact with the position to be filled. Significant characteristics of school maintenance personnel that should be considered include honesty, job proficiency, cooperation, willingness, selflessness, moral character, neatness, manners, dependablitiy, and attitude. Remember, these personnel are in daily contact with students and parents alike and can have a definite positive or negative influence. Job applicants should be screened by the professional staff and recommendations made to the school board through the superintendent. School custodial personnel should not be employed unless they are approved by the respective school principals for whom they will work.

Work Load

In determining the actual needs for maintenance staff, a continuous study of maintenance requirements should be made. Analysis of long and short range programs must be considered. Job descriptions must be established that are consistent with pay and desired standards. Funds available must be a consideration. Various means of determining the number of custodial staff required have been divised. The number of square feet in a building and the average daily attendance are two of the most frequently accepted factors. The following studies should be useful as guidelines for administrators to apply to their local situations in staffing their custodial services. (13:8)

Formulae Based on Square Footage

STUDIES	RECOMMENDATIONS
Delaware School Custodians' Assoc.	12 units per custodian (one unit equals one classroom or about 800 square feet)
Pittsburg Work Formula	11.200 square feet per custodian, (about 14 classrooms)
Pattington Workload of Formula	15,000 square feet plus two acres school grounds per custodian
National Educ Assn	16,000 square feet per custodian

Formula Based on Average Daily Attendance

STUDY	RECOMMENDATION
Dr. Alanson Brainard's Study	A daily attendance of 250 pupils per custodian

Consideration must be given to the type of space included in any formula; classrooms, shops, cafeteria and gymnasia have vastly different characteristics. Consideration also must be given to the type of furnishings in each of the different rooms. Depending on local conditions and the availability of qualified maintenance personnel, an individual school or a school district might find contract work more advantageous as well as more economical for some maintenance jobs. In selecting a maintenance staff, local policies concerning contract work should be given due consideration.

Job Analysis

Once the administrator has established the particular custodial work load for his school, the next responsibility is to develop a job analysis of his school (Figure 5). A two step approach involving a job and time analysis should be employed. The first step would be to identify the tasks and duties of his custodial staff and determine how often each job should be done. One important suggestion to the administrator would be that of involving the custodians in discussion of their respective work.

Careful consideration must be shown to the custodians to give them a reasonable work load. An overburdening work load might be accepted by individual custodians, but could result in duties being performed at a lower level of efficiency.

The second step is the job time analysis which involves a daily work schedule to assure that no important duties are omitted and that overlapping of duties is kept to a minimum. A daily work schedule helps to prevent misunderstandings that may arise between custodial personnel and the administrator. (6:177)

Custodian Time Schedule

The Texas Education Agency, in its pamphlet, SCHOOL PLANT GUIDE FOR CUSTODIANS (13:9) suggests the following time schedule for five custodians. This custodial schedule, based upon 500 pupils enrollment, provides a minimum number of custodians on duty during the school hours and the maximum on duty at the close of school. The schedule follows:

(1) One custodian on duty fom 7:00 am - 3:00 pm

(2) One custodian on duty from 12:00 noon - 8:00 pm

(3) Three custodians on duty from 3:00 pm - 11:00 pm

According to the TEA Custodial Guide, it has been found

Job Analysis-Duties of the School Custodian (5:230)

Job-Location	Frequency					
Administrative Unit	Daily	Wkly.	Mo.	Annually	Annually	O.
Sweep floors						
Strip wax-rewax						
Clean light fixtures						
Clean blinds						
Clean windows						
Mop & buff floors						
Classrooms						
Sweep floors						
Mop & buff floors						
Strip wax-rewax						
Clean windows						
Wash walls						
Clean chalkboards						
Corridor						
Unlock all doors						
Clean and polish hardware						
Sweep floors						
Mop & buff floors						
Strip wax-rewax						
Restrooms						
Clean urinals						
Clean commodes						
Clean lavatories						
Clean floors						
Clean door fixtures						
Clean light fixtures						
Distribute supplies						

FIGURE 5

that the three who work from 3:00 pm to 11:00 pm do a more thorough job than all the five will do working from 7:00 am to 5:00 pm.

Jarvis, et al., (8) states that the primary advantage of such a plan gives greater ease in cleaning a school building that is unoccupied. Another advantage is that vandalism or damage to the school building may be reduced by having someone present during the early hours of the night.

In-Service Training

School administrators have major responsibilities in providing means for school maintenance personnel to grow and advance just as they have in providing for the development of the professional staff. New equipment, improved techinques and more efficient methods of operation are developed daily in the field of plant maintenance. The administrator who fails to recognize or to act on this fact will find himself with an inefficiently managed maintenance program, and will be continually looking for qualified personnel to replace those that have sought more demanding and contemporary positions. In-service training should be designed to meet the needs of the district or individual school plant. The personnel should be trained for the tasks to be accomplished in a variety of ways - apprenticeships, work-shops, conferences or informal classes, practical demonstrations, utilization of committees such as safety, tools and equipment, and others. If practical, formal training may be desirable. Courses of interest and practical application might be taken from institutions of higher learning through state education agencies, local industrial firms, or from other sources that may be found by the alert administrator. Particular attention should be given to the in-service training programs provided by the state education agencies. Normally their information is current, directed completely at the problems of school maintenance, and affords expert assistance at little or no cost. Exchange of visits of school maintenance personnel between schools could provide practical enlightenment and a fresh means of seeing similar tasks performed in different ways. In-service training provides an excellent opportunity for the administrator to instill into the maintenance personnel the inspiration that his role is important in contributing to the effectiveness of the overall learning process.

To prevent "burnout" and loss of employees, we need to keep people interested in their jobs. To get the new employee off to a successful start, an effective orientation and indoctrination to the work place - not the job - should be the first order of business. The second step follows as a natural; Demonstration of the job and its tasks with the new employee beginning to receive hands-on practice under the supervision of an appointed teacher. When a job turns to boredom it is then that additional inspiration and attention to employee job need priorities are critical. A Change of pace is another means to combat boredom.

Employees expect full appreciation of their work. This can be supplied by praising an employee's efforts. Another aid to holding employee interest is the presence of a real career ladder - the opportunity to grow with a job and/or move from one job to another. Constantly recurring training should not be overlooked as a means of keeping up an employee's interest toward his job. For any program to be effective is an enthusiasm at the top. Management must care for people as people - not as machines or a resource. (9:27-28)

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Maintaining the physical conditions of the school plant in a manner which best contributes to the efficiency and effectiveness of the learning environment is the primary responsibility of school maintenance personnel. Major general areas of concern include: (1) housekeeping, (2) mechanical and engineering, (3) maintenance and repair, (4) grounds, (5) fire prevention and school safety, (6) police and supervisory, and (7) records and reports. Specific duties for which the principal should hold the maintenance supervisor responsible include:

1. Management of personnel under him.
2. Designation of individual responsibilities and specific task assignments.
3. Organization of the personnel and facilities for effective operation.
4. Contributions for establishing the maintenance budget.
5. Overseeing the selection and purchasing of supplies.
6. Periodic inspection of the school plant and subordinate work.
7. Supervision of maintenance records.
8. Recommendation and/or provision for needed in-service training.

9. Compliance with standards of safety.

10. Advice to the principal as necessary in accordance with established guidlines.

These do not include all duties. However, they do outline the magnitude of the position and can serve as a departure point for administrators in defining the duties of maintenance supervisors. Modifications must be made according to the size of the school plant or operation. However, someone must assume responsibility.

Deferred Maintenance

Money is not always available to make improvements when they are necessary. A concrete system of priorities for use of deferred maintenance should include:

1. Take immediate action to provide for safety and protection against damage.

2. Diagnose items to be corrected to prevent imminent problems.

3. List items necessary to fully renew or upgrade facility or system.

4. Identify those items that would cosmetically improve campus environment.

Communication

To allow for successful completion of these and other duties, flow of information to and from the principal and maintenance personnel must be well established and facilitated. Definite lines of communication and supervision must be provided. The principal and other members of the administration and professional staff should make personal contact with the maintenance personnel on a periodic basis. they should be receptive to the ideas and suggestions of the grass roots employees. Every opportunity should be made to provide for exchange of information on a peer level. It is important that school maintenance personnel as well as all other non-professionals acquire improved ways of accomplishing their particular tasks, but it is of much greater importance that they realize their responsiblity concerning their significant input into the entire educational process.

RELATIONSHIP WITH STAFF

Teachers and their classrooms are directly affected by the cleanliness and orderliness. Custodial personnel are directly affected by the attitude of teachers and administrators toward them. It is the principal's responsibility to instill in each a proper attitude of mutual respect for duties and responsibilities of both the professional and non-professional staff. Schedules should be explained and written for teachers and maintenance personnel. Cooperation between the staffs can be greatly enhanced by the utilization of established lines of communication. Complaints from teachers about custodial or maintenance work should go directly to the principal and not to the maintenance personnel. Teachers should, however, compliment custodians directly when warranted and forward written notes of commendation to the principal for proper recognition. An occasion might arise that would provide the administration an opportunity to recognize maintenance and custodial personnel in a public manner. This public credit can instill a sense of pride that will reap benefits for the entire school.

Of significant importance to the administration is the responsible attitude of all members of the school staff to be alert to maintenance requirements, particularly those those that might affect the health and welfare of the students and faculty. Such concern by both teachers and maintenance personnel will greatly facilitate the rapport between the two groups. Merely to train custodians to be better workers and to familiarize teachers with the duties and responsibilities of the maintenance staff is insufficient. The two groups must be brought close together in order to unify their common goals and purposes. The principal must provide the necessary interaction and professional guidance needed to establish the desired rapport.

FINANCING SCHOOL MAINTENANCE

The school budget is a planned pattern of expenditures used to accomplish the educational goals over a given period of time. School maintenance services are a significant portion of the budget. Maintenance allocations in the budget are made based on the maintenance projects and regular operating costs outlined as required to keep the school facilities operative and functional. Pertinent data and planning on maintenance requirements and operations must be formulated early enough to allow for appropriate consideration for inclusion in the annual school budget. To achieve this, adequate and timely records and inspections must be maintained. A determination of how much of the operating budget must be allocated for maintenance service should include : 1) cost of supplies and materials, 2) cost of labor (local or contract), 3) selection of products, 4) use of school facilities by students and public, 5) renovation or construction plans, 6) routinely scheduled maintenance, and 7) unscheduled maintenance. As unfortunate as it is, considerations of expenses incurred as a result of vandalism must also be include. Depending on the maintenance requirements brought to light based on these considerations, maintenance services may take anywhere from four to ten percent of the operating budget. Recent recommended allocation of funds for maintenance services tend to substantiate the need for a minimum of nine to ten percent of the proposed operating budget. (4:15-16) For practical and realistic maintenance services, a workable relationship between educational needs and maintenance needs must be established and funds allocated accordingly.

To be economical and to make maximum utilization of funds allocated, a maintenance program must be planned, timely and efficient. In order to accomplish these goals, specific economic objectives must be included in the planning phase. These objectives should include : 1) employing the right man for the right job, 2) saving on materials through selection and efficient useage, 3) proper selection of tools and equipment, 4) using records for study, timing of jobs, and establishing priorities, 5) controlling or routing of job inputs, 6) continuing safety program, 7) utilizing time efficiently, 8) reducing paper work, and 9) consolidating of activities.

The effects of inadequately funded maintenance could be counter-productive. Attempting to cut corners and to apply "make-do" repairs will only end in more costly requirements at a later date. When a school plant is improperly maintained, there is a reduction in the motivation of students to learn and of teachers to provide enthusiasm in their lessons. There is a direct reflection in the entire community.

People usually assume that a community with a poorly maintained school is not a desirous community in which to live. The ramifications are broad and too often overlooked or ignored. The well-kept school plant is a source of pride to every individual in the community and has significant impact on such wide community interest as child development, industry drawing capability, and overall community advancement.

Enabling a school to have an efficient and adequate maintenance program at nominal costs are many economies which may be implemented by the alert administrator. Of important consideration in this area is the selection of professionally trained personnel. Such personnel utilized in a maintenance program more often save money as a result of their knowledge and operations procedures than it costs to pay them the higher salary. Other economics that might be employed include:

1) Standardization of parts.

2) Quality control of materials received.

3) Local purchase when practical.

4) Labor saving devices vs. man hours.

5) Consolidation with other schools or school districts in purchasing materials and supplies.

6) Preventive maintenance on a timely basis.

7) Periodic inspections.

8) Provision of information to the staff about facilities and equipment applicable to their use and care.

Some states may provide for a system of state purchasing of standard equipment, materials, and supplies. This should be investigated, and utilized if it is compatible with the needs and requirements of the school. One avenue for improving maintenance and economical operations suggests organizing a group of local business personnel on a voluntary basis to evaluate various aspects of the school plant. They are solicited on the premise that their experience will provide a means of saving as well as utilizing the school tax dollar more efficiently. Such a project implemented correctly, could provide benefits for the school in more than simply saving on maintenance costs. (10:72) It would be a means of good public relations and allow lay people other than the school board to see and understand the needs and requirements of the school.

In effecting maintenance economics, a system of programmed maintenance has been developed that offers some concrete suggestions in reducing costs of maintenance services (13). There are six primary steps in utilizing this programmed approach to schools.

1) Survey of all cleaning operations - the total time and labor required to adequately maintain the school plant must be known. This should be accomplished by means of a detail survey of the school plant.

2) Determine specific maintenance methods - step-by-step instructions should be employed when needed to accomplish assigned tasks. The individual maintenance employee must know the job to be done and how best to do it.

3) Run a value analysis of maintenance materials and equipment - involved in this step are five questions that should be asked about each product or service:

   a. What is it?

   b. What is its purpose?

   c. What does it cost?

   d. What other products will produce the same results?

   e. What do they cost?

4) Conduct an area analysis and develop workshops - considering utilization of time with regard to moving from job to job is of concern here. Area analysis can identify where time is wasted and provide for greater efficiency. Workshops to increase employee training, efficiency, and morale should be established.

5) Estimate the work force - work requirements should be considered from the viewpoint of team or individual work.

6) Compare worksheets and time estimates to actual work performance - the causes of differences found in estimates versus actual work performance should be determined and the problems resolved.

Budgeting maintenance and economizing in maintenance services requires careful attention and supervision by the school administrator. Inadequate school maintenance is false economy.

OPERATIONS PROCEDURES

Lack of funds is not always a major problem in the administration of school maintenance services. The problem arises in the lack of quality administrative leadership. For school maintenance to be effective, administrators must have a sound plan toward the maintenance program. They should keep continual track of maintenance operations and requirements through surveys, routine inspections and checks, and reports by members of the staff. Use of a carefully planned checklist is imperative (Figure 6). The checklist should never be used as a rating scale, rather it should be a guide for improvement. (11:261-2) The principal and the cusodian should tour the building and make note of the repair items, both small and large, that should be done. These routine inspection tours should come at specific times for maximum utilization of personnel for repairs. A suggested time for tour inspection would be the first week of each month. Services of the state education agencies of which the school administrator should be aware include school plant surveys and inspections, assistance with problem areas, advice on remodeling or building, and general consultation. Such services should be utilized when needed, particularly by smaller schools that are unable to hire a business administrator or other permanent employees with expertise in these fields.

The administrator should provide positive leadership for the school maintenance personnel. The custodian's knowledge of the school and personnel can be used to great positive advantage by the principal. Untapped and unrespected, it can go astray. Administrators can establish an effective supervisory relationship with the school maintenance staff by providing adequate working conditions, mediation between teachers and custodians, utilizing the custodian in showing visitors the school plant, and in soliciting student cooperation in maintaining the school in an orderly and clean manner. The administrator must provide careful supervision if his custodian program is to be effective. Supervision in larger districts would involve the director of operations and

Inspection Checklist for Interior Maintenance (7:257)

Room No.__________	Condition	Remarks
Floor		
Walls		
Ceiling		
Wood Trim, Venetian Blinds		
Cabinets		
Drain Board & Splashes		
Furniture		
Heating and Controls		
Hardware		
Electrical Fixtures		
Educational Equipment		
Intercom Amplifier System		
Partitions		
Tile		
Plumbing and Fixtures		
Kitchen Equipment		
Stage Equipment		
Towel & Toilet Tissue Cab.		
Mirrors		

FIGURE 6

maintenance and the principals. In small school districts, the primary responsibility resides with the school administrator. (8:232)

All policies, relating to control, should be understood by all personnel involved. It is usually advisable for the administrator to evaluate the work of the custodian staff on a prepared rating form. In using a rating form, the administrator should use it as a way of discussing with the custodial staff various improvements of work methods and to commend the staff for their work in areas where excellence has been shown. Suggested items which could be used in a rating form are: ability to learn, knowledge of duties, skill in the use of equipment, accuracy of work performance, knowledge of regulations, neatness of work, use of time, production, care of property, safety, punctuality, absence, appearance, and courtesy.

It must be kept in mind that a plan for organization for a program of maintenance cannot work equally in every school district. An ideal organization is not possible; however, efforts should be directed toward this end. Most written policies and guidelines regarding the operation of the school maintenance services should be established by appropriate administrators. Others might warrant the official approval of the school board. Such policies should include specific instruction on standards to be maintained, purchasing procedures, and criteria for priority of job selection. All equipment in the school plant should be maintained in accordance with the printed instructions which are normally provided by te manufacturer. Building manuals citing approved materials and supplies should be drawn up and utilized. An exact system of handling work request should be outlined. Administrators should supply local public services such as the police and fire departments with a list of names and phone numbers of personnel to be contacted in the event of an emergency.

Planning of school maintenance should be done through close cooperation of the administration and the school maintenance staff. Putting all repairs off until the summer might not interfere with the learning program, but in general this is a bad policy. Non-scheduled maintenance, that is, maintenance that arises from requests by the administration, faculty, or unexpected emergencies, should be expeditiously handled. Preventive maintenance can be structured around full time traveling teams of carpenters, painters, and a plumber, augmented with electrician and glazier assistance. In the Oakland Plan, they were rotated twice a year through some 26 sites, each on a fixed schedule, averaging one week per site. Besides performing minor, routine repairs and servicing, the teams identify needed repairs which exceed the team's capabilities, either because of lack of necessary skills, equipment, materials, or time at the site, and refer that work to the appropriate central shop. (7:50-2) Scheduled maintenance, that is , maintenance that includes preventive maintenance, inspections, regular service, and temporary corrective action, should be followed in accordance with the developed plan. Small irregularities and repairs should be handled immediately, usually by the custodial staff. Any needs which tend to be of a classroom nature should normally take priority over other maintenance problems. The administrator should direct his custodial staff to repair any broken desks, burned out light fixtures or damaged blackboards. Because of rapid deterioration, the following areas should be given close attention by the principal and custodians:

1) bells, clocks and alarms; 2) window, doors, and hinges; 3) paint; 4) electrical wiring and fixtures; 5) drinking fountains, sinks and drains; and 6) blackboards.

Heating - Ventilation - Air-conditioning

The administrator should take the utmost care with these environmental conditions of his school. The administrator should instruct his custodians to maintain the heating and cooling at a comfortable level for school children and school personnel. (4:102)

If the custodians are not trained in repairs needed for heating, cooling and ventilation, the administrator should have a guide to refer to for needed help. In large districts the central maintenance department is usually qualified to do this. However, if it is a small district, such work will have to be contracted to local companies involved in such work.

Room conditioning with air movement is necessary for optimum learning. The system should : 1) remove odor; 2) circulate air for balance heating and cooling to all parts of the room; 3) facilitate temperature control; 4) regulate relative humidity; 5) provide a supply of oxygen.

Air conditioning adds to the environmental control for the comfort of chidren and faculty. This, of course, requires qualified personnel who can service the units properly. Such maintenance, however, should be concerned only with the cleaning or replacing of filters. Major maintenance of air conditioning equipment is a highly specialized field, requiring specially trained engineers and mechanics. At present, the trend is for almost all new schools to be air conditioned. Evidence indicates that air conditioned buildings are more economical to build and operate, as well as more productive educationally, than conventional structures. (3:136)

Lighting

Principals ordinarily are not responsible for installation of the lighting fixtures in the school, but they do have a responsibility to see that the facilities available are properly used. The principals should instruct the custodians to replace any burned out lights immediately. It is very important to have the correct amount of brightness in rooms.

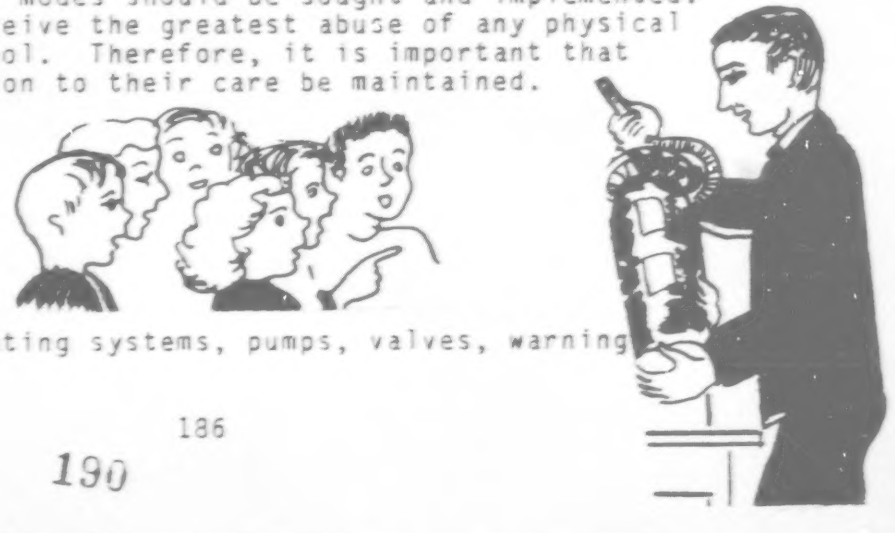
In older schools, lighting can be supplemented by rays from the sun. Usually, this light can be controlled by venetian blinds. In this situation, the principal should instruct the custodian to clean the blinds regularly.

In newer schools, (with air conditioning) artificial lighting is necessary for all rooms due to a general lack of windows. The administrator, with assistance from the custodians, should insure that the walls, ceiling, and chalkboards are kept as clean as possible to maintain the appropriate lighting level.

Floor

Carpeting throughout a school is considered highly desirable. Some advantages in using carpet include: 1) controls noise, 2) helps with insulation of heat and air conditioning, and 3) reduces the amount of time and labor required in cleaning floors. Most schools have more conventional flooring. Regardless of the type of flooring found in a school, there are proper modes of maintenance for each. These proper modes should be sought and implemented. Floors probably receive the greatest abuse of any physical structure in a school. Therefore, it is important that appropriate attention to their care be maintained.

Periodic checks are recommended for equipment, such as electric motors, starter controls, heating and ventilating systems, pumps, valves, warning



devices, safety equipment and fire control. If the head custodian is not trained for this type of maintenance, a qualified person should be employed for the necessary inspections. Usually, larger districts and some medium-sized school districts have their own trained personnel.

The services of other technically trained people, such as architects and structural engineers, heating, air conditioning, and safety engineers should be utilized when the administrator thinks it is necessary.

Records

Efficient school maintenance services necessarily includes the keeping of accurate and purposeful records. Records concerning maintenance operations that should be kept on file include the school budget (present, past, and proposed), work requests, work orders, time cards, records of materials (purchasing orders, sign-out sheets, etc.), and architectural drawing and specifications. Any deviations from the original drawings and specifications should be made a part of the permanent records. Inventory records, cost and control records, records of contracts, and records of job performance are vital. These records should be used as future planning guides. As in the case of all records and reports, a periodic and systematic review should be made to determine the need ad usefulness of each record. Accurate records are extremely important when dealing with public funds; therefore, school administrators must insure compliance with the proper standards in maintaining these records.

BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS

Attractive,well-kept school buildings and manicured, litter-free grounds play an important part in the education of a child. Outside appearance of a school affects not only the student and school personnel, but it also affects the public.

The school plant should be one of the best kept places in the community. The modern school administrator should be aware of the responsibility of supplying a safe, healthful and attractive environment for students. Responsibility for the actual upkeep of school campuses ranges from the director of the physical plant in larger schools to the superintendent in smaller schools. Principals and custodians of individual schools within the system have responsibilities between the scope of the superintendent and director.

Landscaping

There are very few things that add more to the exterior appearance of a building than balanced landscaping. The major responsibility for maintenance of grounds in regard to landscaping lies in the readying of the soil, the planting of grass, trees, and shrubs native to the area, and the proper care and maintenance of these areas. Outside resource persons may be consulted in the planning stage but the maintenance of these areas is done by school maintenance personnel. Here again, the size of the school system determines the responsible party. Proper appearance demands adequate equipment and manpower to operate the equipment.

Inspection

An annual systematic inspection of all school property should be made. The best time is just before the end of the regular school year. This gives the maintenance department or the administrator adequate time to organize the schedule of repairs to be made during the summer months. It permits the obtaining of the opinions of the custodians, principals, and teachers on needed repairs, and on the way in which the repairs should be made.

A complete inspection of the entire school site, including walks, fences, and playground equipment should be made. It is a necessity to use a check list of all the items and parts of the building to be inspected.

As soon as the spring inspection is completed, a schedule of repairs to be made in the summer must be compiled. The person making the list can classify the repairs into two kinds : 1) those that are necessary, and 2) those which, while not absolutely necessary, are desirable. Each list should be prioritized. If the status of the school budget will not permit the making of both the desirable and the necessary repairs, the necessary ones should be made first. Each repair job should be considered individually before making the classifications. If the desirable repair might be hazardous or become a hazard if left unrepaired, the administrator should place this among the necessary repairs.

The safety of human lives must be a major concern.

The Repair Shop

Today's school administrators should consider the possibility of setting up a central repair shop in which repairs to school equipment can be made. In a small school district the shop may be in an area in the school building. In larger school districts old school buildings may be used for maintenance shops. (4:66) Many school districts have their school garages in or close to the maintenance shop. Whatever the case, the shop should be flexible and suitable for installation of equipment and machinery necessary for needed repairs. In districts where funds are available, the construction of an attractive maintenance shop will be an asset to the total school system. It will attract good workers and assist the administrator in developing a proper attitude toward maintenance.

Several general and desirable requirements improve the operation and long-range efficiency of central maintenance shops. They are:

1. The building and plot should be a part of the educational center of the school district. The shops should be located in a convenient and accessible part of the school district.

2. Ample parking space should be provided for the cars and trucks belonging to the shop.

3. Provisions should be made to hide debris by the arrangement of buildings, the utilization of wood fences, the use of shrubbery, or other appropriate means .

4. The ingress and egress should be controlled.

5. Provisions should be made for expansion and flexibility in the maintenance shop area. (4:67)

Several general requirements for improving the efficiency and attractiveness of the large central maintenance shop are:

1. The building should be constructed of fire resistant materials.
2. A standard sprinkler system should be installed.
3. Provision should be made for inclined ramps for loading and/or unloading.
4. Provision should be made for dock offsets with "I" beam and chain hoist extending out over dock.
5. Provision should be made for a freight elevator large enough for a loaded three ton truck (if building has two or more stories).
6. All doors should open out and should have door closers and holders.
7. Panic hardware should be installed on all outside doors.
8. Provide a flag pole on the site.
9. Hose bibs for exterior of the building should be located at intervals not to exceed 150 feet.
10. Provision should be made for electrical and plumbing outlets. Electrically cooled drinking fountains should be distributed throughout the shop area.
11. Gas cutoff valves should be located on outside of the building.
12. Light facilities should include :
    a. Flourescent and/or mixed aritificial lighting should be provided as the separate spaces require.
    b. Outside lighting for the entire project - buildings and grounds should be provided.
    c. If the building is constructed as part of the service center, the transformer room would be a part of the electrical layout.
13. The intercommunication system should have:
    a. A switchboard, either manual or dial, with lines to the maintenance area.
    b. An intercommunication system installed with controls in the maintenance office.

14. The heating and ventilation system should provide for:

   a. The air conditioning of the main office and certain sub-offices.

   b. Separate heating of the maintenance shop.

   c. Adequate window and mechanical ventilation. (4:68-9)

Of course, smaller school districts cannot possibly meet the above requirements. However, some principles can be modified for use on a smaller scale while others are applicable to all sizes of school district.

Contracts vs. District Personnel

Maintenance work for the school may be done by the school's own force or by outside contractors, i.e. contract work refers to negotiating with an electrical company to do electrical work, or a painter to provide painting services. In supervising school maintenance operations, the administrator should consider the various types of maintenance programs available to him. These will normally include, 1) a program whereby all maintenance is accomplished by a local staff; 2) all maintenance is done through contract; 3) a combination of the above; 4) the majority of the maintenance is done by the local staff with specialists called in when needed; and 5) maintenance accomplished by the regular staff with augmentation during the summer months. As more schools conduct twelve month programs, planning and execution of maintenance services becomes essential. There are many reasons given for and against contract maintenance. Some activities can be performed by school custodians such as replacing light bulbs, tightening a screw, nailing a board and unstopping a sink or commode. Other maintenance personnel, in-house or contracted, would not be as readily available for small jobs. The small school system does not have the range of choices the large system has. (The superintendent of a very small school system may have to tighten his own loose screws.)

Those who favor using school employees for maintenance work assert that:

1. The labor cost for school mechanics is lower;

2. School maintenance workers have greater pride and interest in the work;

3. School mechanics can be more familiar with the plant;

4. School personnel are available when needed;

5. The hazard of being overcharged by an unscrupulous contractor is avoided.

6. The job can be commenced more promptly.

Those favoring utilizing outside contractors believe that:

1. The school cannot afford to purchase all the needed tools and equipment;

2. The school cannot afford to hire staff members with the necessary high levels of skill;

3 Contract workers are more productive because of profit motive;

4. Contractors have greater resources to accomplish large volumes of work;

5. The problems of managing skilled personnel are avoided;

6. Schools economize by paying only for the hours that they need and use contractors for special assignment.

Many other factors should be taken into consideration before deciding the route to take. For example, attitudes of local labor unions, availability and qualizy of local contractors, the labor market, and availability of funds, all merit adequate concern. In most cases involving routine maintenance, district personnel are recommended. However, for maintenance that requires a skilled workman or expensive equipment, it is advisable to use an outside contractor when these resources are not available in-house.

TOOLS

If the school maintenance staff and custodians are to perform in an efficient manner, they should have the necessary equipment and supplies to meet maintenance requirements. It is estimated that 90-95% of the expense of the average custodial job in a school is for labor involved and only 5-10% is spent for supplies. Most tools purchased are expensive initially, but the long-range cost is relatively low.

The person in charge of maintenance within the system should identify the needs before making any purchase of tools. Custodians in each school should assist in the determination since they will be the ultimate users of the equipment. Many administrators use a standardized list of maintenance materials to purchase the needed supplies. Such a list, once established, can save time in the purchasing process. However, care should be taken to constantly re-evaluate the list for possible improvements.

The purchase of tools is the responsibility of the school district's business manager. Again, in the case of smaller schools, the superintendent is the business manager. After the purchase, one person should be held responsible for the accountability of all tools. All tools that are broken or become unusable should be reported to this person, who in turn can either replace it or see that another is requisitioned.

Care of tools and safe handling should be stressed throughout the maintenance organization. Tools belonging to a particular maintenance shop should have assigned places for storage and should be in these places when not in use. Equipment should be used only on school projects and should never be loaned or rented to outside parties.

Storage of tools in an individual school is often a major problem. Adequate space for tool storage in each school is a necessity and administrators should plan for such areas. Many tools can be hung in a locked room on a large painted board with spaces sketched in a contrasting color showing the tool belongs in a particular place. Some tools and parts (drill bits, hacksaw blades) must be kept in drawers or boxes. These spaces should be labeled to identify contents. Two or three clip boards should be in the tool room, one for the tool check-out forms, one for the short list - items needed or to be replace in the near future, and a third clip board for the tool room inventory.

Effective maintenance requires a system of keeping records and inventories of all tools and equipment pertinent to the maintenance service. Each person in charge of maintenance in an individual school should keep accurate, handy records. Such records should be readily available for inventory checks by the central business office.

A list of tools given here would be useless to some school systems because of the different needs of each system.

However, each school should have the minimum number of tools necessary to adequately maintain the school plant. The head custodian of each school should meet with his principal and discuss the tools and supplies required to meet the maintenance needs of their school. A central system is appropriate in large schools.

TRANSPORTATION MAINTENANCE

The major objective of the school bus maintenance program is to keep the school vehicles running safely. To do this the program not only should have an efficient system of repairs, but a method of detecting possible trouble spots. This "preventive maintenance" program is essentially a management process which requires responsible attention by supervisor, driver, and mechanic. A helpful tool for efficiency between these three is a communication system on buses and the central control center.

Preventive maintenance has three aspects:

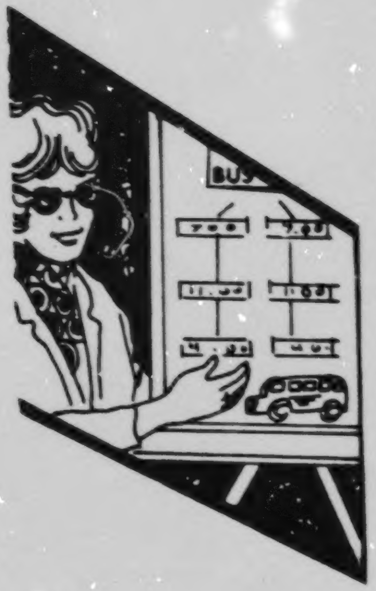
1. First-echelon inspection. This is the daily attention of the driver to simple inspection and servicing. Proper fuel, oil, and water levels are maintained, electrical equipment and windshield wipers are checked, and tires are visually inspected.

2. Periodic Service. This is performed by a mechanic and should follow the manufacturer's service manual in scope and frequency. A checklist and a log of what is performed are essential records in this process. Lubrication, oil changes, and ignition service are the main regular items in periodic service, but other repairs will be performed as required.

3. Scheduled Overhaul. Also, this should follow the manufacturer's service manual recommendations, adjusted to local conditions. Depending on the size and organization of the fleet, this work may be done on the premises or in commercial garages. The need to overhaul a specific component on a particular vehicle is infrequent, usually occurring only two or three times in the vehicle's service life. Typical overhaul tasks are motor rebuilding, transmission repair, and brakes and clutch replacement. Here, also, adequate record keeping is essential.

Some states require periodic inspections of school transportation equipment by designated agencies, at intervals ranging from three months to a year. These inspections should furnish assurance that preventive maintenance has been practiced, rather than seek to discover what defects require attention.

If the school district operates its own transportation equipment, it will have the direct responsibility that its maintenance program is sound. If the district retains the service of a private contractor, it still has the obligation to see that pupils are transported safely and efficiently. Thus, many such contracts include a requirement that the private contractor adhere to certain maintenance standards.



The most convenient way for school districts to effectively maintain school vehicles is to own or rent an equipped garage. The garage can be a hub for many maintenance activities - storage for busses, inspections, repairs, servicing, and repairs to school equipment other than vehicles. The garage should be durably constructed and as fireproof as possible. Since it is necessary to work with highly combustible materials, it should be supplied with ample fire-fighting equipment. The garage should be adequately supplied with tools and supplies needed to cope with any minor or major repair.

The superintendent or business manager should select a competent person to be the supervisor of the garage. Preferably, the person should have a background in automobile mechanics. He should be given an appropriate title such as "supervisor of transportation" or "director of school bus maintenance." It is his duty to maintain and service all school vehicles. If he is especially competent, he may be given general supervision over all phases of pupil transportation, including school-bus drivers, routes, and pupils transportation records. His more specific duties will be to perform the first-echelon inspections, periodic inspections, and scheduled overhauls. He may perform these duties himself or supervise other mechanics or bus drivers in the operation.

In smaller school districts, the maintenance supervisor may have time to drive a bus, in addition to his regular maintenance activities. In systems operating many busses, he may act as a substitute driver, or have a relief bus ready to go in case of an emergency call from another driver.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

The organization of a public relations program is essential for effective administration in public schools. The maintenance program is more economically and efficiently managed when administrators recognize its implications for public relations.

Maintenance or custodian work is not a glorious position and very seldon do the names of such people appear in the headlines. These people appear before the public more often than administrators think. As an example, many times the custodian sweeping the halls is the first person a visitor to the school meets. In his neighborhood, he may represent the power structure. The public for which he (the mechanic, the painter, the yardman, or the maid) is the leader and authority on school matters may never see the superindentent, principal or even the teacher, except at special, out of school events. Therefore, it is necessary for administrators to make the maintenance and custodial staffs realize their importance. A sense of pride should be instilled in the worker. He must feel that he is a part of the success of the operation of the school system. By helping the worker achieve this attitude, he will be more likely to perform his work in a quiet, dignified, and courteous manner. It is as important for this level of employee to be properly armed with correct information about the school system as it is for teachers and other members of the professional staff.

SUMMARY AND EVALUATION

Organization and administration of school maintenance services is one of the most significant areas of responsibility incurred by the school administrator. The vast amount of funds involved and technological advancements surrounding the development of the school plant make it imperative that present-day school administrators manage school maintenance services in an efficient and effective manner. School districts, of any size, may soon be moving toward centralization of maintenance under the position of a director. In small schools, this could mean collective or cooperative organization on a regional basis. The position of director of maintenance will require a person specifically trained with experience in constrtruction, maintenance, and personnel management while individual maintenance workers may be hired for specific basic skills and technical knowledge.

Usually, the school is the heart of the community. To maintain this heart in optimum working condition, it must be well cared for in every way. To do so requires a comprehensive and continuing evaluation of the maintenance services. An instrument for the evaluation of maintenance services is included in INSTRUMENTS FOR THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOL SPECIAL SERVICES. (3) Figure 7 is a suggested form for the evaluation of personnel. A well maintained school provides an important foundation for the learning environment. This is a major objective of school maintenance services.

NAME:

(PLACE CHECK MARK IN ONE OF 3 BOXES, EACH LINE)

FIGURE 7

TO EVALUATE AN EMPLOYEE'S	CAREFULLY CONSIDER THE:	(UNSATISFACTORY)		(POOR)
Ability to Learn	Speed with which the employee absorbs instruction and handles work without repeated instruction	Slow: Requires Constant Instruction		Must have some repeated instruction
Knowledge of Duties	Extent to which the employee possesses the job knowledge to fully perform assigned duties	Poor: Lacks knowledge; cannot perform assigned duties		Needs additional knowledge
Skill in the use of equipment	Speed & dexterity with which the employee uses or operates machines and equipment	None: Lacks Skill		Possesses some skills; needs experience
Accuracy of work Performance	Exactness and thoroughness with which the employee completes all work assignments	Very Inaccurate; Not Acceptable		Frequent errors
Knowledge of Regulations	Extent to which the employee knows and conforms to district policies and division rules	Breaks Many Rules; uninterested		Little knowledge; some violations
Neatness of Work	Employee's habits of neatness and cleanliness applied to work performed	Very Poor; Poor Example to students and others		Usually untidy
Use of Time	Manner in which the employee uses his working hours; his conscientiousness	Loafs on the Job - No Apparent Interest		Inclined to be lazy - Wastes time
Production	Amount of work performed and the promptness, quality, and speed with which it is completed	Very Slow Worker: Does Not Meet Requirements		Below average; needs improvement
Care of Property	Amount of care exercised by the employee to prevent damage and avoid misuse of district property & equipment	Negligent Worker - Frequently Causes Damage		Careless; causes avoidable damage
Safety	Extent of precautionary measures to protect himself and others from injury. His observance of hazards	Careless; Takes Risks		Normally safe worker; occasionally careless
Punctuality	Employee's dependability in being ready for work at all times; on time	Frequently Late; Interferes with Work Schedule		Irregular: Not too dependable
Absence	Frequency and duration of unauthorized or medical absences	Very Frequent		Not too satisfactory
Appearance	Extent to which employee practices personal neatness and cleanliness with respect to job requirements	Unsatisfactory appearance; Far Below standards		Untidy not up to standards
Courtesy	**Employee's manner and general attitude; his consideration of others; his tact**	**Usually Rude; Numerous reports of discourtesy**		**At times rude and inconsiderate**

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for MAINTENANCE SERVICES

1. To whom should the head custodian in a building be responsible? Explain your answer.

2. Describe how the use of different time schedules for different custodial personnel can enhance the quality of school maintenance services.

3. Describe how Management by Objectives (MBO) can be used to help the principal obtain quality maintenance services in the school building.

4. What services should be provided by the school district? What services should be contracted? Explain your answer.

5. What are the potential sources of friction between teachers and custodial personnel? How can they be minimized?

6. How can in-service training for custodians be organized? Is it necessary? Desirable?

7. How can maintenance services be integrated into long range school and district planning?

8. Why are school maintenance services important? What is the administrator's role in providing them?

9. What are the implications of maintenance services for public relations?

SAFETY SERVICES

CHAPTER VII

SAFETY SERVICES

It is paradoxical that scientific discovery, so much a part of today's world, has saved and prolonged life, yet at the same time, has created additional hazard for the living. If the better world is to be enjoyed, people must learn to appreciate safety.

Technical changes in society and attitudes of the court system have brought changes in the educational system. Safety of school children is now a major concern of administrators, teachers, and parents. Children frequently face conditions that are hazardous and detrimental to their lives and health. Millions of accidental injuries occur annually to elementary and secondary school students while they are under school jurisdiction.

Legislation making schools and school personnel liable for injury due to negligence has stimulated school administrators to formulate safety policies and safety education programs. These policies and programs are a step toward the safety of the children.

Several questions should be raised for the school administrator such as: who is responsible within the school district for organizing and administering a program of safety? Who has the responsibility for safety education? Who should report an accident? How should it be recorded and to whom should it be reported? What responsibility to safety does the teacher have in and out of the classroom? How should the safety services be organized and administered? These questions should weigh heavily on the school administrators' minds.

HISTORY

From the founding of this country until the early 20th century, child labor was a necessity. There was no limit to the age at which children could be employed and often the five year-olds worked in industry with their parents. The hours were long, and the work was hazardous.

Safety programs at this time were practically nonexistent. Machines were unguarded, and lighting, ventilation, and housekeeping were poor. Child labor kept the child employed and out of school.

The first law to regulate child labor was passed in Massachusetts in 1836. This and subsequent laws were ineffective. However, the federal government did not pass a child labor law until 1916.

The first really effective labor law was the Fair Labor Standards Act passed in 1938 and amended in 1946 which set minimum wages and maximum hours, and prohibited formal employment of children 14 years of age or younger. The law defined hazardous occupations, set minimum ages for these jobs, and restricted school age children to three working hours a day when school was in session.

The National Safety Council was organized in 1913 and was concerned with child safety from its very beginning. One of its first projects was to publish a child's book on safety entitled, Sure Pop and the Safety Scouts. (12:5)

Safety education has its beginning when the Junior Safety Council was organized in 1918 in Rochester, New York. A comprehensive program was started in 1919 in Detroit, Michigan, and another program with emphasis on school-community cooperation was initiated in Kansas City, Missouri. These programs led to the development of the Education Division of the National Safety Council.

Today, under both federal and state statutes, children are protected by laws to keep them in school and out of work -- at least until their mental and physical maturity is assured. (12:45) Administrators and other educators must be concerned with the safety of the child during this period of mental and physical growth.

OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY AND HEALTH ACT OF 1970

The Federal government has indicated its concern for better conditions for health and safety by passing legislation. (Occupational Safety and Health Act, 1970)

In December 1970, the Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 was signed into law. This Act is commonly called for brevity's sake OSHA. The purpose of this key legislation is to assure safe and healthful working conditions for the nation's workers. The law provides that each employer must furnish the employees a place of employment which is free from recognizable hazards that may cause death or serious injury.

Over the years, an increasing number of conscientious employers have voluntarily improved working conditions. But the 1970 OSHA law designates specific responsibilities to the employer and provides penalties for failure to observe these responsibilities.

Some of the specifics of the Act are as follows:

1. Every employer covered by the Act must keep occupational injury and illness records for the employees in the place of his work.

2. Every employer must maintain in each working establishment (a) a log of recordable occupational injuries and illnesses, and (b) supplementary records of each occupational injury or illness.

These regulations, although they target business and industry, have already affected the school systems' attitudes toward safety and healthful environments.

OSHA is a concentrated effort of the Federal government to reduce serious accidents and illness which annually take many lives. While the Act does not as yet apply to schools as governmental agencies, in the future it will. Each school should display the contents of this Act on its bulletin boards, and provide for the study of its provisions. Now is the time for school administrators to begin to place their houses in order.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The school safety program should be organized with two purposes: (1) to prevent accidents in the school environment, and (2) to provide instruction in safety which will acquaint the student with safe performance.

Administratioon of the program should be directed by the safety coordinator, an individual prepared in safety education. Both administrative and instructional personnel should be aware of hazards in their areas of work and should contribute their efforts to support the safety coordinator. The coordinator for safety should be responsible, establishing and maintaining safety requirements, conducting community and school surveys, and a study of accidents. These are the basics for developing a safety program.

The school administrator's concerns should be:

1. Coordination of the safety program by a competent person.
2. Integration of the safety programs into the school system.
3. Involvement of children, teachers and staff in supervised drills for such emergencies as fire, explosion, tornado, and civil defense.
4. Guidance of students in safety activities to inculcate the development of desirable habits and skills.
5. Cooperation with appropriate community agencies.

DUTIES OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

School Board

The school board has the responsibility for initiating a program for safety in the district. It is their duty to establish policies for the program, and periodically evaluate the progress. The board serves as the catalyst in stimulating cooperation between the community based programs and the school safety programs. Models for the establishment of comprehensive safety programs may be ascertained from the following sources:

1. From current research
2. From recommendations of consultants
3. By attending conferences and workshops
4. Visitation to schools with successful programs
5. Consulting with local, state, and national organizations

The board prior to the implementation of a program for safety should draw upon the resources of experts in the field of safety education. These may be within or from outside the district. It is understood that the board of education establishes policies, whereas the chief school administrator is responsible for the execution of these policies.

Superintendent

The superintendent has the primary responsibility for the school's program for safety. It is the duty of the superintendent, in cooperation with the school board, to establish specific board policies and guidelines concerning safety education and accident prevention.

The superintendent should be knowledgeable and conversant with the educational, environmental, and financial aspects of the safety program. The superintendent also should provide effective leadership in accident prevention or delegate it to a competent person. In the larger school systems the superintendent must delegate the responsibility of the safety program to a qualified person. The selection should be based on the philosophy of safety that will encourage school personnel to support the program. In a small school situation the superintendent may have to serve in this role.

Safety Coordinator

The safety coordinator or supervisor is the most important individual in the safety program. This individual must work with the building principals, deparment chairmen, other administrative supervisors, and the community in planning the details of the program. Again, according to school system size, the coordinator may serve as director of other services.

The job responsibilities developed by the National Safety Council's Safety Education Supervisors Section are as follows:

- Determination and coordination of administrative policy in safety. The most important item under this heading is the collecting and analyzing of data from school accident reports. Accident prevention programs cannot be developed until it is known where the problems are. It is also the supervisor's duty to set up exit drills for fire, tornado, hurricane and other emrgencies requiring evacuation of the building. His office also prepares, gathers, and provides pertinent safety educational information for all phases of the school district's safety program.

- Development of safety curricula. The safety supervisor serves as the safety consultant on the school district's central curriculum committee. He works with principals and teachers in scheduling materials and safety activities. He will also utilize outside speakers and consultants for classroom and assembly programs.

- * Improvement of instruction in safety. Many supervisors conduct workshops or other in-service programs for all school personnel, especially the classroom teacher. These classes cover such areas as legal aspects involved in safety, latest materials to use in teaching safety in the classroom, and how to organize or improve school safety in the safety programs.

- * Development of improved community coordination in safety. The safety supervisor cooperates with local police and fire departments, safety councils, service clubs, and many other organizations in bettering the school's total safety programs. The services of the many community organizations are generally available and can be used in many ways to supplement the school's programs.

- * Evaluation of the effectiveness of the safety program. The supervisor should seek assistance from teachers in developing evaluation instruments to determine the effectiveness of safety activities. The supervisor may make personal visits to teachers in the school system for the specific purpose of helping the people involved with safety activities to evaluate their efforts.

This is a brief outline of the safety supervisor's work. It encompasses many other areas such as pedestrians, parking lots, motorcycle education, school bus safety, driver education, athletics, laboratories, plant security, and employee safety. (10:12-13)

Principal

The principal is responsible for safety programs within his school and provides the leadership in organizing the programs. The faculty should be encouraged to participate actively in the integration of the student body into the safety programs. The school administrator should make periodic checks of the buildings and grounds to see that they are maintained in safe condition.

The principal should work in close cooperation with the safety supervisor in developing plans for emergency drills for fire, storm, or disaster. The principal should see that available facilities and materials are maintained and that students and teachers are informed about their proper use. Assistance should be given to the supervisor in operating in-service safety programs.

Teachers

Teachers should make daily checks of their rooms and materials for any unsafe conditions. Teachers should express good, wholesome attitudes toward safety and safety education, and should discourage and report unsafe practices on the part of the students.

It is each teacher's duty to know the alarms for the different types of drills and procedures to follow in case of a disaster. Teachers should be responsible for posting directive information in the room and insuring that students understand the contents and significance of them.

The teacher should report unsafe conditions or practices that are evident in the building and surrounding environment.

The playgrounds, laboratories, and gymnasia are especially dangerous environments. Children must be made aware of hazards and provided an incentive to want to eliminate unsafe coditions so that they may get the greatest possible enjoyment from their activities. It is important that students have a positive attitude toward safety on the playground, in the classroom, and at home. It should be noted that some teaching areas present more potential hazards than others, such as industrial shops, chemical laboratories, and athletic fields.

Custodians

The custodian should be especially alert to keeping school buildings in safe condition. The custodian should be responsible for the following and reporting them if they cannot correct them:

- * Inspect building daily for mechanical defects and careless housekeeping.
- * Inspect door panic bars daily.
- * Provide sufficient light in dark areas, especially on stairs and halls.
- * See that exit lights are repaired and located in conspicuous places.
- * Keep exit doors unlocked when [illegible] the building.

* Keep tools in repair and in proper racks.
* Inspect heating equipment in use at close of each day.
* Keep all open-face panel boxes, switchboards, and electrical connections protected by locked covers.
* Check and refill fire extinguishers before school opens in the fall, and at regular periods during the year.
* Promptly dispose of waste paper, refuse, and rags.
* Use metal cans for temporary storage of waste.
* Use safety cans with covers for holding flammable liquids.
* Keep stairs, halls, and doorways free from boxes, chairs, cans, or other obstructions.
* Use non-slippery floor dressings.
* Be alert for escaping gas, and check for gas leaks by inspecting all gas appliances.
* Inspect playgrounds each morning and remove all hazards.
* Call attention of teachers to pupil conduct which is potentially hazardous.
* Know functions of various school patrols and cooperate with leaders.
* Be friendly to children.

Pupils

Pupils have an important and active role in the safety program at school. They can be a big asset by simply practicing all safety rules. Pupils should know the signals for emergency drills and the exits from each classroom. They should participate in safety education and help enforce safety practices in school.

The more students become involved in the program planning, the more apt they are to participate in its success. Some schools have student safety committees; others have student representatives on adult committees. Student Safety Patrol is an example of student involvement.

Parents

It is the responsibility of parents to see that children receive constant safety education at home. One of the best teaching methods is example. Children are not apt to practice safety when adults violate safety principles. Attitude is a major factor in safety.

Parents should cooperate with the school in safety education. There are many opportunities for them to participate in safety. Some of these are driver education, vehicle safety checks, and bicycle safety clinics. The PTA is an excellent plaace for cooperative projects of parents and school officials in the various phases of safety.

Parents can create a dispostion to act safely as new experiences demand new techniques of protection. There is a continuing demand upon the parent before and during the school years to supply an appropriate base for safety instruction.

PUBLIC SAFETY OFFICERS -- RESOURCES IN SCHOOL PROGRAMS

New concepts in the utilization of public safety personnel are of two kinds. First is the utilization of in-service personnel hired by the school to perform some related safety functions. Second is the use of municipal, county, or state police officers and firms who, as a part of their regular function, give assistance to the school. Both types of sucurity activities offer valuable assistance to the school Safety Coordinator.

The In-House Public Safety Officer

This officer serves as an employee of the school and usually serves in a dual capacity. First, to provide uniform protection at high risk locations and second, serve as a coordinator for safety education information programs. The qualifications of the person holding the position will usually dictate his usefulness to a safety program. If properly qualified, the in-service officer serves as an excellent liaison and resource person to local police, fire and other public safety agencies.

The Use of Public Safety Personnel

Municpal, county and state public safety personnel are sensitive to the problems of the school and are willing to assist if requested. The public safety officers should be requested to handle school functions only if they deal with security problems, such as sporting events or specific law violations. Officers may be invited as resource persons for special educational programs.

There is a difference of opinion in using uniformed officers as a resource person for the students on a regular basis. Several experimental programs of this type have not achieved satisfactory results. Present practice is to assign officers to campuses as plain clothes advisors and counselors, as substitute teachers, or as regular teachers in specific classes. The most satisfactory and widely tested programs for the involvement of police officers in school programs are:

1. Pedestrian Safety -- Grades K-12. The officer has special materials for presentations in such programs as safety in crossing the streets, safety procedures for dealing with "indecent exposures," and other sex deviate who may molest students walking to or from school.

2. Bicycle -- Grades K-12. Most states now have specific program curricula dealing with this problem -- programs that emphasize riding safety, bicycle licensing, maintenance, and theft prevention.

3. Auto Safety -- Grades K-12. In lower grades, the emphasis should be upon pedestrian safety and the automobile. In grades 10, 11, and 12, the emphasis should be upon safety programs dealing with automobile and motorcycle operation and laws concerning rights responsibilities.

4. Other Special Programs in Safety. These programs range

from simple awareness presentations to complex community relations programs.

Under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (amended in 1973), a public safety agency has funds to assist the school in innovative safety programs. These programs may deal with the modification of anti-social behavior, the disposition of problem students, and activities concerning prevention of theft, burglary and other criminal problems.

A school administrator or supervisor charged with the direct safety of school children should investigate the availability of public safety resources for assistance in orienting both the teacher and the student in safe behavior.

STANDARDS FOR BUILDING AND GROUNDS

The school building grounds can be sources of healthful experiences for school children and the public. However, there are times when the same surroundings also can be a haven for accidents. It is the duty of school personnel to see that a safe environment prevails.

Standards for school buildings and grounds should be established and strictly enforced on a state-wide basis. Texas, as an example, has published a set of standardrds in a handbook for school administrators.

Standards for school buildings are:

1. Buildings must be fire and wind resistant, preferably not more than two stories in height.
2. Corridors, stairways and all other features of building construction should meet local, state, and national building standards.
3. There should be at least two exits and fire escapes for all buildings over one story in height.

4. Outside doors should be equipped with self-closing devices and panic bars which should be inspected, oiled and tested each week.

5. Exit doors from classrooms should open outward and be provided with door checks which hold the door against the wall when open.

6. Auditoriums, gymnasiums, and other rooms used by large groups should be located on the ground floor for ready exit.

7. Sanitary facilities -- toilet for each sex, washing facilities, and drinking fountains -- should be in sufficient amounts and so located and arranged as to prevent congestion and to facilitate cleaning.

8. Lighting in rooms, halls, basements, locker rooms and store rooms should be adequate, with lights at the head and foot of stairs and wherever needed to prevent accidents and protect vision.

9. School furniture and equipment must be safe, regularly inspected and kept in repair. Machines in shops and laboratories should be equipped with approved safety appliances. Tools and utensils should be stored in proper places not accessible to children.

10. Such safety hazards as slippery floors; splintered floors, doors, handrails, or chairs; and projections or obstructions in rooms, halls, and stairs should be eliminated.

11. Safety of existing old buildings can be improved by rebuilding furnace and coal rooms outside the building, or enclosing them in fire-resistant ceilings and walls; Checking all wiring and switches, replacing them when necessary, and enclosing wires in metal conduits; rebuilding wooden stairways with fire resistant materials; replacing old and broken plaster; covering or replacing old and broken floors; providing adequate ventilation; and installing automatic sprinkler systems in basements, halls, and stairways.

Hazards may occur in various building areas and can be dangerous and often unnoticed. A few common hazards are the following: loose acoustical ceiling tile, sharp edges, loose handrails on stairs, and unshielded clothes hooks at eye-level height in corridors and other areas. (6:59) Also, deep holes and ruts on the school ground, splintered boards, poisonous materials, frayed cords, any sharp or protruding objects from wall, ceilings, and floor, unsanitary restrooms, and sidewalks and fences bordering school property. (15:139)

Next to the floor, doors are the most often used part of a school building. To prevent accidents caused by doors, the following precautions should be observed:

1. Examine the condition of all outside door checks periodically.

2. Check frequently the conditions of locks.

3. Clear glass below the panic bars in doors should be replaced with wire glass, aluminum, tempered glass, or plastic.

4. Check the overhead mechanism on doors frequently.

5. Openings in classroom doors should have wire, glass or plastic.

6. If door checks are used on interior doors, the door should be completely open with 180 degree swing or closed. (6:58)

Some standards for school grounds are:

1. The school building and playground should be in clear view when approached on the highway or street from any direction. Warning signs should be erected where they can be seen easily by motorists and others.

2. Protective measures such as policemen, caution signs, school patrols and stop lights should be used to protect children at hazardous crossings.

3. The school site should be located away from railroads, industries, dangerous streams, and anything which disturbs school by noises, odors, or physical or moral hazards.

4. School grounds should be nearly level, but with sufficient drainage. They should be free from stones, holes, ditches, stumps, or other obstructions.

5. Elementary schools need five to ten acres of playground area, with building located at one end or one corner of the grounds, to leave a maximum of free space for play. Sites for high schools vary upward according to sizes and purposes.

6. Play areas, if adjacent to streets, should be fenced.

7. Play areas for smaller children should be separated and protected from play of older children. Shade trees are desirable for areas of quiet play and apparatus, where they will not interfere with team games.

8. Safe parking areas, as well as loading and unloading zones for school buses, should be provided.

9. Service driveways should be fenced or marked and should not cross play areas. They should extend from street to school only, and not pass the school to another thoroughfare or alley.

10. Flagpoles, monuments, garbage incinerators and other obstructions should be located so as not to spoil play areas.

11. Drinking fountains of correct height and design are needed in sufficient number outside the school building within safe reach of children.

12. Walks and passage ways between buildings should be provided above water or muddy ground.

LEGAL LIABILITY OF TEACHERS IN ACCIDENTS

Teachers are responsible for students within their care. If the teacher's actions are not those of a prudent person, he runs the risk of being held liable through a lawsuit. Negligence on the part of the teacher that causes injury or property damage is generally cause for a law suit.

In general, negligence is any conduct below the legally established standard for the protection of others against the unreasonable risk of harm. Basically, there are two types of negligence:

1. An act that a person of ordinary prudence or judgement would realize involves unreasonable risk to others.

2. Failure to act for the protection of another.

Thus, negligence can be acts of commission or omission. The specific details of each case determine whether there has been negligent behavior. An act may be negligent in any of the following circumstances:

1. It is not properly done - appropriate care is not employed by the individual.

2. The circumstances under which it is done create risks, although it is performed with due care and precaution.

3. The individual is indulging in acts which involve an unreasonable risk of direct and immediate harm to others.

4. The lack of appropriate skill to perform acts undertaken.

5. The failure to make adequate preparation to protect others before entering upon certain conduct where such preparation is reasonably necessary.

6. The failure to inspect and repair instruments or mechanical devices used by others.

7. The prevention of a third person from assisting others and becoming imperiled through no fault of his own. (1:173)

ATTORNEY
GENERAL

ACCIDENTS

A goal of every school should be to have an accident-free school. This condition is highly improbable. Risk factors -- psychological, emotional, and physical -- cause accidents to occur in almost every activity. A significant responsibility in the administration of the safety program is to have an adequate procedure for reporting and analyzing accidents.

The minimum content of an accident report consists of the following:

1. Name
2. Address
3. School
4. Sex
5. Age
6. Grade
7. Date, time, and day of week of accident
8. Nature of injury
9. Part of body injured
10. Degree of injury
11. Number of days lost
12. Cause of injury
13. Jurisdictional classification of accident
14. Location of accident
15. Activity of person
16. Status of activity
17. Supervision
18. Agency involved
19. Unsafe act
20. Unsafe mechanical or physcial condition
21. Unsafe personal factor
22. Corrective action taken or recommended
23. Property damage
24. Description
25. Date of report
26. Report prepared by (signature)
27. Principal's signature (13:34)

The reports of accidents mean nothing unless capable people study them and make a thorough inquiry when they occur. Individual accident reports can be useful if positive action is taken. Studying an individual accident report may show conditions or deficiencies which can be immediately corrected.

Accident reports can be useful as a teaching tool. For example, a child is injured in a fall and the teacher had noticed in the past that the child doesn't appear to watch where he is going. The child is referred for an eye examination and a deficiency in sight is found and corrected. The teacher also may use a report for correlation with the subject matter being taught.

The principal has many uses for an individual accident report. For example, he may use the report to:

1. Check on what is happening in the school.

2. Spot an unsafe condition or hazardous procedure which can be corrected by the custodian or by the principal or, the report can provide the basis for a work order for repair and maintenance of facilities.

3. Initiate special safety studies in the school.

4. Strengthen staff interest in accident prevention activities by having member of the staff, such as the faculty safety coordinator, nurse, or custodian review the report and make recommendations.

5. Establish a repeater file, or to note the accident in the pupil's personal folder for reference throughout the child's school years. (13:1)

The school system safety coordinator normally is the next person to review the report. The report may be used to:

1. Spot unsafe conditions or deficiencies not recognized at the administrator level.

2. Initiate special studies when unusual accidents appear, such as when skateboard came into use.

3. Watch for trends in normal activities so that immediate analytic and preventive action can be taken in case of rising trends.

4. Initiate procedural studies and changes.

5. Emphasize a particular subject area in regular or special bulletins.

6. Alert supervisors in other departments, such as physical education, elementary, industrial arts, science, and medical departments to incidents relative to their specialty, and to request their recommendations or suggestions.

7. Spot weaknesses in the reporting procedures, which can be corrected or minimized.

8. Screen out unusual occurrences which will provide a little levity or change of pace for bulletin material.

9. Keep the superintendent fully informed of serious or unusual incidents in case of question by the board or other local officials.

10. Keep the business or law office informed of reports which may have legal implications.

11. Establish a repeater file at the school system level for purposes of special studies. (13:1-2)

REDUCING ACCIDENTS

Administrators can take a number of steps to reduce the possibilities of accidents, cut insurance costs, and minimize the time lost as well as the pain and suffering.

1. Establish an accident reporting and record keeping system so that data can be retrieved and analyzed.

2. Encourage action research by the staff to determine the cause of each accident and type of injury occurring to students within their jurisdiction.

3. Make sure first aid and medical equipment are readily available.

4. Survey, periodically, the physical facilities of the school.

5. Instruct all students in general safety procedures according to their grade level.

6. Check for hazards: Loose boards, splintered floors, missing light bulbs, wet floors, holes, debris, curb-stones, cans and bottles, etc.

7. Revitalize the school safety program. Promote safety by enlisting speakers from town or city departments, state agencies, insurance companies, bureaus and organizations such as the red cross. (4:60+)

FIRE SAFETY

There is a contemporary movement among school administrators to make schools as "fireproof" as possible. However, the completely "fireproof" building does not exist. What does this mean to a school administrator? What changes can be made to insure that the next school built is as "fireproof" as possible? What step can be taken to see that schools now in use are as safe as possible? Perhaps, most important of all, what steps can be taken to insure that, if a fire does occur, there will be no loss of life, and loss of property will be minimal.

The time to consider fire safety in a school is in the planning stages. Fire prevention devices and materials are expensive. Too often, school boards and architects sacrifice these factors for aesthetic reasons, building visually pleasant structures that may be impossible to evacuate in an emergency. The major portion of the blame rests with the school board.

A tour of the school plant, looking for the answers to the following five questions, will eliminate the majority of fire hazards:

1. Are all stairways enclosed? If you find open stairwells, the solution is simple: enclose them.

2. Are there at least two exits to every room? Correction here is more complicated, but it is still necessary.

3. Is the interior finish safe? In case of doubt, coat with flame-retardant paint.

4. Are combusitble waste materials safeguarded? Any loose combustible material is subject to ignition by a chance spark.

5. Is there an effective plan for calling the fire department? Have the number available. Assign two people on the administrative staff whose responsibility in the event of fire is to phone the fire department. (14:90)

It is essential that a careful, detailed plan of evacuation be planned for each school; that it is understood by the pupils and staff members; and that it is rehearsed sufficiently, to make it maximally efficient.

Fortunately, the fire drill is a time-honored institution. Unfortunately, in most schools it suffers from a variety of defects -- ranging from the fact that students usually know when a fire drill is scheduled to lack of coordination with the fire department. (14:92) The National Fire Prevention Association recommends that schoolmen study evacuation procedures. This will often result in improvement in the method used. The recommended procedures are as follows:

1. A meeting should be held with the local fire chief to determine one procedure to be followed in evacuating the building.

2. Each teacher should be instructed not only in the routes of evacuation for the students, but in the specific location outside the school building to which they should be led.

3. The escape routes should be posted in each classroom and office.

4. A copy of such instructions should be left with substitute teachers.

5. Teachers should be instructed what to take with them as they leave the the classroom, such as the daily attendance roll. As soon as the group reaches the safety of the outside, the roll should be called to account for all individuals.

6. Non-teaching personnel should be assigned to check non-classrrom areas at the time the alarm is sounded -- lavatories, backstage areas, locker rooms, and so forth.

7. Particular attention must be paid to the needs of the physically handicapped and emotionally disturbed children. No time should be lost in giving them special assistance when the alarm is sounded.

8. The entire evacuation procedure should be tested with members of the fire department stationed throughout the school as observers. This will allow them to catch any mistakes that might go unnoticed.

9. When the procedures are approved as being effective they should be put into formal effect. They should be tested via fire drills on a regular basis -- not so frequently that students and faculty fail to take them seriously, but frequently enough so that the procedures are

remembered. (14:93-94)

The essential ingredient of a fire drill is surprise. Pupils should seldom, if ever, be told in advance of a fire drill. As a general rule, members of the faculty should be surprised also. Sometimes principals will warn teachers about a drill so they will not be giving examinations. Such practice is ill-advised. Teachers play the leading role in any emergency. They must be even more skilled at dealing with the unexpected than the pupils.

People are the key to the effectiveness of any early warning system. They must be educated to know what causes the alarm to sound, what they must do, and how much time they will have in which to do it.

The entire life safety program plan is supervised by a full-time professional fire prevention officer who is paid by the school administration. He is responsible for investigating all incidents, checking fire protection equipment, instructing the school staff in use of extinguishers, and supervising fire exit drills and safety procedures. This is an ongoing program so that the new personnel are exposed to the program. (2:56+)

SAFETY IN PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

Student participation in sports and physical education is increasing for both males and females. More leisure time, the emphasis on physical fitness, and the growing awareness of the value of recreational activities are some of the factors that add to the growth in the number of participants in physical activities.

In the rush to provide more activities and more facilities, one of the primary responsibilities that school administrators and instructors in physical education must face is that of providing students with maximum protection against hazards. It is inevitable that students who particpate in voluntary or required sports programs will be involved in accidents. Most of the accidents will be minor and involve only skinned knees and bruises. However, some will result in temporary or permanent disabilities; a few may be fatal.

Because of the threat of injury, physical activities should be studied for potential hazards. After analysis of accident records, safety measures that will prevent needless injuries should be initiated.

The instructor should know the accident facts pertinent to each activity taught or supervised. These facts include severity rate, the parts of the body most frequently injured, the types of injuries most likely to occur, and the possible causes of these injuries. Forearmed with this knowledge, the teacher can better extend his ability to employ necessary accident prevention and first aid measures. (5:3-5)

Students should be made aware of the hazards of different activities. They should learn not only the techniques of activities, but also, the hazards involved and the procedures most effective in preventing accidents. When students know of the risk involved in sports or physical activities and learn to compensate for those hazards without creating new ones, they are then in a position to benefit most from their precautions.

The certified athletic trainer can decrease the incidence of injuries by practicing proper preventive measures. These would include adequate and appropriate conditioning for strength and flexibility, and cardiovascular endurance. In addition, the trainer should be qualified to meet needs in various other areas, including the following:

1. Close observation of all members of athletic teams for signs and symptoms that suggest referral to a physician.

2. Administration of first aid to injured athletes with referral to a physician if necessary.

3. Application of protection and injury prevention devices and techniques.

4. Utilization of techniques of physical therapy and rehabilitation procedures to restore injured players to competition as soon as possible.

5. Maintenance of adequate records of treatment and outcomes of all athletic injuries.

6. Supervision and organization of conditioning exercises and programs.

7. Selection of the best available protective equipment.

8. Maintenance of hygenic conditions in showers and locker rooms to prevent the spread of infectious diseases.

9. Counseling and advising athletes and coaches on matters

pertaining to conditioning, rest, diet, exercise, and reconditioning.

10. Scheduling and follow-up on physical examination in cooperation with the coach and the school physician. (16:32-33)

DISASTER PROGRAM

Special provisions for civil defense are an indispensable part of the total safety program. Each school must devise a plan suited to its own particular conditions. These plans need to be in accordance with and be a part of the total community civil defense program.

The following suggestions identify some essential elements that can be considered by school personnel in civil defense planning for specific school situations: (1) survey of existing shelter potential in school buildings and nearby buildings; (2) natural distasters likely to occur in the area (floods, tornado, hurricanes); and (3) human resources -- individuals and organized groups with the skills required to serve in the school protection program.

As with fire drills, written plans on disaster drills, indicating evacuation routes, signals for disaster drills, and shelter areas should be posted in all rooms and provided to teachers and students.

BOMB THREATS

There is no need to dwell on the responsibility involved when a school receives a bomb threat. Most bomb calls are just threats, but it only takes one valid call to cause disastrous results. The alert school administrator will provide for a quick, efficient system of reporting a bomb threat. Usually, evacuation is necessary, in which case the regular evacuation drill can be used. The Oklahoma City school system has included procedures in a safety handbook which are as follows:

1. When the school receives a call about a bomb being in a school building, the principal is to call the fire department and ask for the dispatcher.

2. The dispatcher at the fire department will in turn call the police department and alert them.

3. The police department and fire department will each send a representative to the school to consult with the principal on the procedures to follow.

4. If the police and fire department representatives do not arrive at the school in time, the principal shall have the building evacuated through a regular fire-exit drill.

5. In cases where the fire or police department receives the call that a bomb has been planted in a school building, the respective department will call the principal of the school.

6. Any condition or situation not covered or that is different from those listed above will be left up to the discretion of the principal.

7. Should any person find a suspicious package or article in a school building, he should NOT touch or move it, but report same to the principal of the school, fire department, and/or the police department.

SAFETY EDUCATION

Safety education is the training of children to avoid accidents to themselves and to prevent accidents to others. It involves the acquisition of a certain fund of information, the ability to apply this information to concrete situations, and the building of habits which will result in desirable behavior. (11:2)

The school administrator must take a direct and personal interest in planning and carrying out a school-wide safety education program and must emphasize the development of safety consciousness. The administration should recognize the need for safety education at all levels.

To make the job of a designated safety supervisor more effective, the administrator should develop a philosophy of how safety programs are to be carried out with limited time and resources. The administrator and the safety coordinator must arrange for the expanded use of basic safety concepts in curriculum already in existence. Safety ideas and concepts should be presented to the teacher, not as a special time consuming task, but as an adjunct to assist in the regular course work. Effective safety programs are those which make mathematics, English, and other courses of study work for safe behavior. For example, a mathematical exercise that measures bicycle skidmarks becomes a living experiment for the manipulation of numbers, and also, an increment in the total safety education program.

The instruction of safety to grade school children is somewhat different from higher levels. It is important to teach the young child from a positive approach. It should be presented in such a way that children will not rebel against it -- constructively, so that they will remember and use what they have been taught. This means teaching them the why rather than giving them a list of easily-memorized and easily-forgotten rules. It is not advocating here that rules should not be used. Rules may be used to remind or illustrate. Once the child understand the why of safety education, rules are a good way to remind him of the concepts. Teaching safety from the positive side is teaching the idea of "safety for," while giving the child "do's and don'ts" teaches the negative side, or the "safety from" approach.

Much of good first aid and safety instruction is up to the individual instructor. Therefore the teacher should have a background in first aid with various practical experiences to relate to the class. The interest of the student should be a number one priority in the teacher's mind, and the classroom should radiate student involvement. There are certain objectives that every teacher wants to instill within the students: (1) Knowledge, (2) Material that the student will use in the future, (3) Change in attitude, and (4) Understanding of controversial topics. (3:23+)

Fulfilling the true objective of safety education includes teaching the child: (1) an appreciation for his own safety, (2) the relationship between personal conduct and the safety of others, and (3) how to develop socially acceptable attitudes. (9:4)

The first objective is usually fulfilled at the primary level when the child perceives his environment in terms of his own physical well-being. Thus, safety concepts must be taught in terms of physical safety. The second objective is developed in the intermediate grades. This stage is one where the child seeks a greater amount of responsibility and begins to consider his life. The last objective is most important, for the development of socially acceptable attitudes. It is the key to maturity. A combination of three teaching methods can facilitate attitude development: (a) the use of actual situations, such as on-the-spot safety instruction in handling tools in the industrial shop; (b) the integration of safety information with general subjects such as mathematics, science, social studies, and English; and (c) the use of extra-curricular activities to bring safety into every facet of the children's lives. (9:5)

SCHOOL SAFETY ORGANIZATIONS

School safety organizations, with the help of competent adult leaders, can play an effective part in preventing accidents. These organizations might be traffic patrols, fire patrols, and building and grounds patrols.

The functions of traffic patrols are to direct and control the members of the student body in crossing streets, to make surveys to determine possible new street crossings, and to assist teachers in the instruction of students in safe practices in the use of streets and highways.

The traffic patrol does not direct traffic. Its function is to assist the students in crossing the streets.

The functions of the fire patrol are to assist in supervising and reporting performance of the student body during drills, inspect buildings for fire hazards, and help in the instruction of fire safety.

The functions of the building and grounds patrol are to assist the teacher in eliminiating hazards, insuring proper conduct, and help instruct proper safety practices on the playgrounds and in the school buildings.

BICYCLE SAFETY

In the school culture, the bicycle rider from kindergarten through ninth or tenth grades is most vulnerable to accidents. It is estimated that over 80 million bicyclists use this mode for transportation and pleasure;

SOCIAL STUDIES	MATHEMATICS	LANGUAGE ARTS	PHYSICAL - HEALTH EDUCATION	SCIENCE	OTHER	
Rules of society (eg. stop light laws, etc.) Responsibilities in home (eg. picking up objects from floor.)	Use of pencils, compasses, and other math tools. Study kind of measurements used in accidents.	Creative communication or safety oriented subjects. Making safety posters Maps. Reading about safety. Use of telephone.	Bicycle safety. Drugs. Observing rules of games.	Use of fire. Poison -- care in handling of household drugs. Studying function and safe stopping.	Working group: To define a hazardous area. Improper behavior.	ELEMENTARY
Responsibilities for one's own actions. Develop proper attitudes toward rights of others.	Discussing accident statistics and accuracy of measurement.	Making scenery for plays. Using tools safely. Making committee reports. Writing letters.	Drugs. Proper footwear. Selecting safe areas.	Use of safety goggles. Laboratory use of fire. Electricity. Drugs. Discussing causes of falls.	Out of school activities: Bicycling Swimming Using tools Hiking and Camping.	MIDDLE SCHOOL
Analyzing the changes in ways of living which have increased need for safety education. Studying local laws and regulations that contribute to safe living	Making graphs to illustrate kinds and frequency of accidents.	Discussing people and agencies that contribute to safer living. Making diagrams and exhibits. Writing reports for school newspaper.	Drugs. Lifting heavy objects. Building physical and educational readiness for practice of safety.	Automobiles. Appliances. Drugs. Use of dangerous household chemicals. Dressing treatment of wounds.	Conservation: Discuss man's need for plant and animal life.	HIGH SCHOOL

FIGURE 1 -- SCHEMATIC FOR INFUSING SAFETY EDUCATION INCREMENTS INTO EXISTING CURRICULUM.

about 90 percent of these riders are children. The bicycle can be an extremely dangerous vehicle and subject to a high ratio of accidents if the operator is not trained to a high degree of proficiency. It is a safety problem (approximately 600 deaths and 30,000 injuries annually) that is most susceptible to cooperation by the home, the community, and the school. Each has a responsibility for involvement in bicycle safety training and education.

School Training and Education

From kindergarten through at least the sixth grade, the safety coordinator of a school should ensure that the school:

1. Develops an awareness among all teachers of the importance of bicycle safety.
2. Provides all teachers with resource materials so that student awareness will be constant.
3. Develops school programs that involve both students and teachers.
4. Calls upon the community and school related organizations (parents's clubs, PTA, Lions, etc. and student organizations) for support.
5. Utilizes the police agencies; most police agencies are equipped to license bicycles, furnish basic literature on traffic laws, and in some instances, run model safety towns as a part of their community relations programs.

How these programs are developed is contained in an increased number of publications from the National Safety Council, the National Education Association, and local police agencies.

DRIVER EDUCATION

In little more than three decades, high school driver education has grown from a single-purpose experimental course offered in one public school to a multi-faceted program considered part of the regular curriculum in multi-thousands of public schools. It was available to but few young people only thirty years ago, whereas the enrollment now totals more than three million students. The program is growing rapidly with federal, state, and private funds subsidies.

Summer programs have been instituted to meet the demands.

Pupils in drivers' education classes receive instruction in traffic regulations, safety education, first aid, and behind-the-wheel driving. This instruction has had a marked effect in reducing accidents. Courses in drivers' training should be coordinated with the safety program so that students can learn the responsibility of safe drivers.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Regardless of the age of the child, his parents are almost certain to harbor an unrelenting concern for his safety. These worries may never vanish, even after the child has reached adulthood. But knowing that their child is learning safety habits at school, and that the school itself is safety conscious can be very reassuring to parents and promotes good public relations. The parents' knowledge that there is organization, that there is a plan of action, and that there is delegation of responsibility builds confidence in the parent-school relationships. Evidence of records, standards and regulations, staff competence in first aid, safety drills, and educational programs all contribute to a feeling of security on the part of the parents and community. To be in harmony with community agencies in matters of safety associates an even wider range of publics who are needed for overall effectiveness. In addition to the services rendered students, the safety program is another important avenue by which good will with the school's constituents can be established and maintained.

Just growing up will not provide children with the needed lessons for safe and happy living -- nor will oftspoken rules, regulations, and admonitions. Effective teaching which helps young people apply the ways of safe living to their everyday actions will make for happier, healthier, and safer experiences in the lives of maturing citizens. (9:5)

It is a challenge to school administrators, school personnel, parents, and students to provide a safe environment for education. All should remember that accidents don't just happen!

EVALUATION

Periodic evaluation of the safety program at all levels by administrative personnel is a must if the program is to be constantly improved. Deficiencies in the programs are often overlooked by people within the system. Therefore, it is recommended that safety experts outside of the school perform an evaluation and offer suggestions for improvement. Weaknesses that are found should be dealt with immediately. Evaluation, analysis, and re-evaluation are necessary for an effective safety program.

An instrument for the evaluation of safety services is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services. (7) It is composed of criteria divided into four major topics: organization and administration; safety education; employee safety; and safe school environment. A supplementary instrument is included for specific use in the Industrial Arts laboratories. These instruments are designed for self-evaluation, evaluation by consultants, or as guidelines for establishing safety services policies.

GO
WITH
SAFETY

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for SAFETY SERVICES

1. What requirements are placed upon the school by the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970?

2. What are the functions of a safety coordinator? How are these functions integrated with the functions of other personnel in the school organization?

3. Explain the legal concept of "negligence". How can this understanding assist teachers in avoiding lawsuits?

4. What is the purpose of fire and disaster drills? How can they be made most effective?

5. How should a principal respond to a bomb threat?

6. How would you organize a safety education program for a school that doesn't have one?

7. What are the implications of a safety program to public relations?

FOOD SERVICES

CHAPTER VIII

FOOD SERVICES

We have watched our program of school lunches in the United States literally transform the lives of children and communities. The American school-lunch plan has given our youth better health, more creative minds and bodies, and better nutritional habits. The children in turn have helped their parents to become more nutrition conscious. (9:372-374)

School food service is a vital, basic, and important aspect of school operations. School meals must be developed as an integral part of the educational processes organized within the school system and administered by trained personnel. Although financial matters must always be considered, the administrator must maintain the primary objective of providing every child with an attractive and nutritious lunch while building habits of good nutrition.

In 1982, 92,700 elementary and secondary schools were participating in the National School Lunch program. (3:41) That is a drop of 1300 schools affecting 470,000 students. (14:41) Households receiving free or reduced-price lunches rose to 5.5 million in 1980. (3:21) The state school food service is responsible for the training of non-professional personnel through local school pre-service and in-service programs, state educational agency services, and vocationally oriented community and junior colleges. Workshops are held periodically and many districts maintain continuous training programs. Professionally trained people, however, are required at the administrative and supervisory levels. The American School Food Service Association (ASFA) has over 50,000 members.

HISTORY OF SCHOOL LUNCH PROGRAMS

The development of school food services programs is relatively new. Although the origin of such service occurred about the middle of the 19th century, its growth toward becoming virtually universal has transpired in recent decades.

Not until the passage of the National School Lunch Act by Congress in 1946 were standards for school food service established on a national basis. The demise of the "lunch pail" thus began. With the development of consolidated schools, it became necessary for schools to provide lunches on the premises. Children could no longer walk home to lunch. Also, the growing trend toward

both parents holding jobs left no one at home to prepare lunches.

The beginning of comprehensive school lunch programs was haphazard and diverse. Many began as projects of the schools' parent-teacher associations as a sort of public service. In such a case, volunteer workers organized and managed the program. But, as meritorious as these efforts were, the schools rapidly outgrew these low organized operations. Gradually the money from local, state, and federal sources became available to finance well organized and conducted programs for children.

The origin of school lunch programs began with the discovery that learning and well-fed children go together; that the hungry child does not profit fully from school. The National School Lunch Act was instrumental in such mammoth expansions of the school food service program that it currently is the largest single segment of the food service industry. The basic level of support of all lunches is 31.4 cents as a result of public Law 96-499. This law also reduced the commodity assistance by 2 cents, gave new income eligibility for free lunch qualifications, computed breakfast reimbursement to the nearest one-fourth, and reduced aid for equipment. (12:2599-2601) Presently,approximately two-thirds of the total enrollment in the nation's elementary and secondary schools, including both public and private schools, have access to school lunch services. In the 1978-79 school year, school lunches were served at a cost of $2.8 billion. The most important causes of the rapid increase in the number of children participating in the food program are as follows: the consolidation of schools; the large increase in the number of working mothers; public awareness of the importance of a balance diet to good health; the passage and enforcement of compulsory attendance laws. (6:17-19)

In the beginning, the major appeal was to children in what we would now call "ghetto" or central city schools. Boston and Philadelphia were the first large cities to establish central food control followed by New York, Brooklyn, Rochester, and St. Louis. (11:87)

The Great Depression of the 1930's constituted the real launching of school food services on a broad scale. It soon became apparent that the need was so great that private or charitable support alone would be ineffective. In the meantime, food surpluses were accumulating on the farms with no prosepective outlets for continued sales. These surpluses were used to augment the fledling school food services.

By 1942, the recognition of malnutrition among needy children resulted in new federal legislation. Subsidies were increased from 25 to 34 cents per meal, making it possible to reduce the price of lunches. Also, this new legislation made provision for appropriations to schools in low - income areas and to cover the cost of food services to children in day - care centers, settlement houses, and recreation centers. The Child Nutrition Act of 1966 appropriated funds to assist in financing breakfast programs in specified areas. In 1974, the U.S. Senate voted to increase the federal subsidy for school lunches by 10 cents per meal to meet the increased cost of food. By 1979, the program became a process well defined, organized, administered and appreciated - an American hallmark.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Almost all new schools constructed in recent years make provision for school food service, which indicates that food service has become an integral part of public education programs. Good services in schools are provided in three major methods:

1. Food may be prepared in each school.

2. Food may be prepared in a large, centrally located school and transported to nearby schools.

3. Food may be prepared in central kitchens and transported to all schools in the district.

In the latter two, the food itself may be served in gymnasiums, classrooms, patios, corridors, or in cafeteria rooms. These methods require, of course, appropriate containers and means of transportation.

The following is a suggested set of school lunch operating policies:

1. The board of education, the superintendent, and school principals accept responsibility for the school lunch program as an important part of the total program.

2. The financing of the school lunch program is centralized. All receipts of school lunchrooms are sent to the central office and pooled with state and Federal funds available for the lunch program. This pooling of resources prevents the penalization of small schools compelled to carry a heavy free lunch load because of the socio-economic level of the population. In practice, federal funds and surplus commodities are largely used to remove inequalities.

3. All purchasing, except for some authorized perishables, is done on a wholesale basis by the central office. All payments are made and all financial accounts are kept by the central office. Budgets are made for each lunchroom, and cost accounts are kept for each lunchroom, but all lunchrooms are financed as one.

4. In systems of sufficient size, a trained school food-service supervisor is employed. The supervisor works closely with the principal and school lunchroom managers. He plans menus in cooperation with lunchroom managers; carries on an in-service training program for lunchroom workers; works closely with the business office in purchasing, storing, and distributing food, equipment, and lunchroom supplies; keeps the lunchroom accounts; and in general, coordinates all phases of the lunch program. This function is a part of the business management office. It should be remembered that good training programs should always pay off in higher productivity. (8:194)

5. Lunchroom managers and their assistants are appointed by the superintendent upon the recommendation of the principals. They are administratively responsible to the principals.

6. Lunchroom facilities are functionally planned for food service operations. Those operations include receiving, storing, preparing, and serving food, cleaning utensils, disposing of garbage, and keeping accurate records. The capacity of storage facilities provided for lunchrooms is coordinated with the capacity of central storage facilities. (11:493)

The commonly accepted plan is for the program to be organized and operated in the school. There are many food management companies with which schools may enter into a contract for the furnishing of food service in one or more schools. Of course, such a system relieves the school administrator from having to handle many fretting details. Administrators seem to feel that there is too much lost in instructional advantages if the food service program is contracted.

The School Operated Program

Within this most commonly used program, there are several possible plans available; however, there is no ideal one system. Thus, the administrator must evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of each, and choose that which best fits his school system. For example, there is the centralized administration plan with centralized buying, menu planning and deliveries to the several school units being served. There are many advantages of this plan. There are also several disadvantages. For example, it is less personal in nature. If something within the system goes wrong, all parts of the centralized system are affected. Getting the food to all units at the proper time is another disadvantage. Trouble with transporting vehicles is a part of this problem.

Another system is the centralized menu planning, buying, and administration with decentralized preparation and serving. This is the most commonly used plan in school operated programs. Purchasing, central menu planning, and administration are performed by a professional staff in a central office for the school system, while preparation and serving are performed in the individual school unit. This plan has the benefit of several economies -- volume buying, for example. The plan, too, is more personal and more adaptable to the total instructional program.

Finally, as to organization details, there is the completely decentralized system. This means that each school in a given district does its own buying, planning of menus, and serving of meals. This plan is more individualized but has obvious disadvantages.

Action research at Ventura, Claifornia, school shows the merit of "play first, eat last." The program solves several problems of the lunch hour. Fresh air, games, and physical activity before lunch cause pupils to eat a more complete meal. Afterward they return to their classrooms more receptive to teaching. (13:460)

The Use of Food Management Companies

There are many privately organized and owned companies that specialize in preparing and serving mass meals. The use of these companies can be observed as growing in popularity in serving large industries. The industries believe -- one supposes -- that a specialized company in the food field can achieve greater efficiency and economy in serving food than can a company geared to industrial production. There has been a trend in recent years for some school districts, particularly the larger ones, to move in this direction. This plan has the advantage of relieving the school administrator of the burden of managing and operating the school food service. This is, perhaps, the chief advantage. There are many disadvantages that would not apply to a private business or corporation. In the first place, though it relieves him of control over the food services, it does not relieve him of his responsibility for assuring that the meals are palatable and nutritious. Also, the private food management firms are not eligible for national lunch and milk subsidies. This means that such companies must practice economies at other points, and these are usually in salaries of employed personnel. This practice results in the employment of second rate personnel, usually resulting in second rate meals. In addition, the service is likely to be impersonal and lack the important educational values associated with a school system.

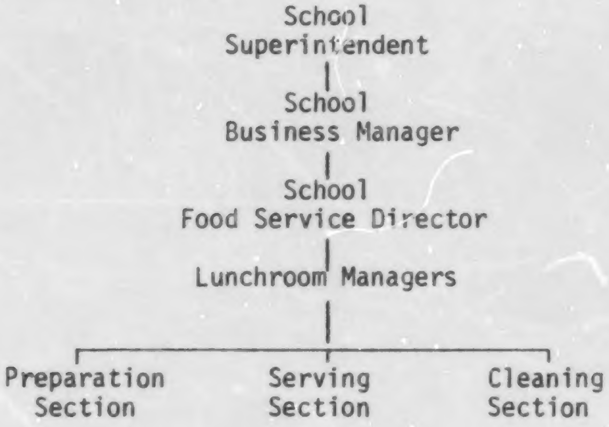
The Machine Dispensing System and Snack Bar

This plan would approximate the Automat. It is efficient (mechanically) and time-saving. It relieves the administrator of routine duties; the schools do not have to invest money in expensive equipment. All advantages of the system are outweighed by the fact that the school has lost virtually all control over menu selection and nutrition. Also, the opoortunity to integrate the food service into the instructional program is completely lost. In modification, the same can be applied to the snack bar if used as the total food service. Many school systems on the secondary level provide snack bars as an adjunct to the regular food service.

Personnel

Inherently, the head of the school food service program in a school district is the superindentent. However, he normally delegates the details of operation to subordinates. The degree of delegation of authority depends upon several factors, such as the size of the district, whether there is a centralized or decentralized plan, available facilities, and others. Figure #1 illustrates both the centralized and decentralized plans of management.

ORGANIZATION CHART FOR CENTRALIZED FOOD SERVICES


School Superintendent
School Business Manager
School Food Service Director
Lunchroom Managers
Preparation Section
Serving Section
Cleaning Section

ORGANIZATION CHART FOR DECENTRALIZED FOOD SERVICES

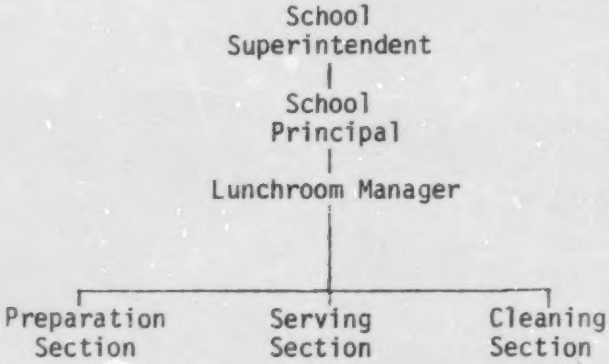

School Superintendent
School Principal
Lunchroom Manager
Preparation Section
Serving Section
Cleaning Section

FIGURE #1

Those having charge of the program in unit schools under the plan are called school lunchroom managers. There is a trend for school districts to have full-time food service directors. At present, there is no adopted uniform plan for training and certifying school food service directors, and only a few states require some form of certification. Following are suggested qualifications for food service directors: (1) a bachelors degree in home economics with emphasis in the areas of food, nutrition, institutional management, and education; (2) experience equal to that of other supervisory personnel in the school system; (3) personal qualifications that will permit him to work easily and constructively with others in the school system and in the community.

At the heart of a good school food service program is a well qualified director. In a number of studies, no single determining factor in establishing such a position has been found. A survey was conducted among 400 widely distributed school districts.

The percentage of school districts employing full-time food service directors, by size of districts, was found to be as follows:

Size of District (Students)	Percentage
3000-5999	More than 50%
6000-11,999	More than 60%
12,000-24,999	More than 80%
25,000 and over	More than 90%

Clearly from this data, the larger the district, the more likely that it will have a school food service director. It is interesting to note, however, that more than one half of the smaller districts (3000-6000 students) have directors. Very likely, current research would emphasize an increasing trend toward better organized programs supervised by more professional personnel.

Although there is no denying the great importance of the school food service director, there are many other categories of food service workers whose roles are important.

The cafeteria worker should be aware of his role in carrying out the objectives of the school food service program. Some of these roles are:

1. To understand how a nuritious, attractively prepared lunch can improve the general benefit of pupils.

2. To develop an understanding among students that a variety of healthful foods can be offered at relatively low cost.

3. To develop the ability to work cooperatively in the service of others.

4. To foster in students habits of responsible citizenship through courtesy and politeness in the cafeteria.

5. To help classroom teachers understand ways that the school lunch program may be integrated with the classroom program. (18:68)

Budgeting and Accounting

As a general rule, budgets for the three general cost items in a school food service program will tend to fall into the following categories: (1) food cost -- 60%; (2) labor -- 30%; (3) overhead --10%. These are estimates. Individual situations vary. It is mandatory that designated personnel must plan ahead financially. Annual budgets must be prepared and these must be segmented into other time elements. Each division of the budget must be itemized. Accurate records must be kept and subject to audit, both internal and external. Accounting procedures are furnished by federal and state authorities. Local districts may supplement these procedures; however, state and federal regulations must be met. Larger school districts and consortia of smaller districts utilize computer assisted accounting. This includes the all-important continuous inventory and computations for purchasing. Efficiency in this area cannot be over emphasized.

ORGANIZING THE FEEDING OPERATION

RECEIVING
STORAGE
Dry & Non-food
Refrigerated
PRODUCTION / KITCHEN
Pre-Preparation
Processing
Cooking-Baking
Portioning
SERVING
DINING
HOUSEKEEPING
Dishwashing
Waste Handling & Disposal

Figure #2 illustrates the flow of food handling (4:77-78)

FEDERAL AID TO SCHOOL FOOD PROGRAMS

Federal cash subsidy and surplus commodity programs of the 1930's led to the passage of legislation that provides food and nutrition services to school children throughout the United States and its territories.

Federal programs are possible resources for subsidies in the way of commodities and/or reimbursement for free lunches. Cafeterial budgets in almost every district are self-sustaining. they usually receive no funds from the local district. The operating funds come from three sources: (1) paying students, (2) paying adults, and (3) federal and state subsidies. Federal funds are apportioned to states to reimburse school districts at a specified rate per lunch served. The National School Lunch Act requires that states match each federal dollar of general cash-for-food with three dollars from state sources. In states with a per capita income below the national average the ratio is reduced. Strict daily accounting of the numbers of lunches served to students and adults in various categories must be kept along with special milk program figures, prepared a la carte portions, and pre-packaged portions. The local district is responsible for intitial facilities and equipment and the business office function of accounting and auditing.

In January 1979, the reimbursement rate for lunches served eligible students under the National School Lunch Program were as follows:

Each Type A Lunch	$.1450
Additional for Reduced Price Type A Lunch . . .	$.6950
Additional for Free Type A Lunch.	$.7950

As of January 1983, reimbursement rates for the breakfasts served to eligible students under the School Breakfast Program are as follows:

Each Regular Price Breakfast.	$.1150
Each Reduced Price Breakfast.	$.3325
Each Free Breakfast.	$.4025

In the beginning of this aid, the U.S. Department of Agriculture was assigned the function of helping to eliminate hunger and malnutrition by assuring all Americans access to good nutrition. Great emphasis, in successive laws passed by Congress, has been to the nutrition of children. A cluster of laws has been enacted to this end over the years: The National School Lunch Program, the Breakfast Program, the Non-Food Assistance Program (Preparation and service equipment, now the "Food Service Assistance Program"), the Special Milk Program, the Special School Food Service Program for Children, and the Commodity Distribution Program. The USDA administers these programs in cooperation with the respective state departments of education.

About a fifth of the cost of lunches comes from the federal government, one fifth from the state government and about three fifths are provided from payments by children. All public and non-profit private schools, elementary and secondary, may apply for such aid. Conditions to be met are that the meals are served on a non-profit basis and meet standards established by the USDA. The Type A lunch is designed to fulfill about one third of the dietary needs of 10 to 12 year old children as recommended by the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council. The cost to each child for such a lunch is nominal. Federal funds must be matched at the rate of three dollars for each federal dollar, by sources within each state, including state funds, local school funds, children's payments, and donated foods and services.

In addition to nutritional and health benefits, the program has created an important market for farm products. The program has become the largest single food service operation in the United States.

The School Breakfast Program was begun by the Child Nutrition Act of October, 1966, again to improve the diets of children. Priority is given to schools in poor economic areas. Federal funds, in some circumstances, can be used to pay 80 percent of the costs of the breakfast program. As with the Lunch Program, specific dietary standards must be adhered to. (2:92-96)

The Type A Lunch Pattern is a guide to well-balanced meals that will help meet the child's nutitional needs. To meet the requirements of the National Lunch Program, the Type A Lunch must contain:

(a) Meat or meat alternate

(b) Vegetable and/or fruit

(c) Bread

(d) Butter or fortified margarine

(e) Whole milk

The amounts of food served to students may vary according to the age of the students. Since younger children are not always able to eat the full Type A Lunch prescribed for older children, regulations permit serving these children lesser amounts of food specified for older children. Similarly, regulations encourage serving larger food portions to teenagers.

Waste in public schools has been a problem for years. Some things to do to encourage students to eat all of the food on their trays are student involvement with posters, skits, or editorials in the school newspaper. In one school, "Captain Ecology" would storm through the cafeteria in search of plate cleaners and reward a student who was doing his part to eliminate waste with a "Waste Not Award" -- A card good for a special treat. (10:79-80)

EQUIPMENT

The types of equipment required in a food service program depend upon the type of service being furnished. For schools using food prepared in centrally located schools, there must be equipment for storage, preparation, and service. Unless disposable tableware is used, dishwashing equipment must be provided. Also, the equipment needed depends upon the type of foods served. Facilities and equipment are capital outlay for the local school district, although there is provision for subsidy in the program for replacement of major equipment. Continual emphasis needs to be placed on the need to select, operate, and care for equipment to save energy. (19:v)

OBJECTIVES REVIEW

Naturally, the basic objectives of school food service programs are to provide students with, and influence them to eat, healthy, nutritious meals. The lunch program is an excellent educational tool - nutrition education can be provided, the meals themselves can promote good habits for a lifetime, and the social interaction that takes place at the school lunch hour is of prime importance to the growing-up process. (17:83)

There is evidence that advertising media are aimed at influencing children to want to by "junk" type food. This includes food packaging, television, radio, newspaper, and magazine. Many of these so-called foods, however, have been proven to be poor food items, sometimes worthless and in some cases, harmful. A burger, fries, and soft drink meal is low in every nutrient. (10:85) The controversial USDA'S Competitive food rule known as the "Junk Food Ban" is being redrafted for enforcement at the state level. (16:27)

Tastes
Better...

That nutritious meals contribute greatly to students' mental and physical health has been proven by scientific studies. One study reported that children who participated regularly in the school lunch program had a 37 percent advantage in weight gained and missed 67 percent fewer days of school than non-participants. Another study showed that when a group ate an adequate breakfast they had a better attitude and did better school work that those who omitted breakfast. (5:323-325)

Some other objectives of school food service programs are:

1. To teach the benefits of good nutrition and health, which must involve cooperative efforts among administrators, teachers, food service personnel, students, and parents.

2. The learning of certain social amenities, such as table etiquette. This is of special significance to children who come from broken homes or homes where both mother and father work, and there are few meals where the family eats together.

3. The advantages that occur from integration of classwork with the food service, such as making drawings and posters, citizenship education, reading and writing about food production, studying foreign language menus, learning the relationships between diets, calories, vitamins, and health.

SOME COMMON PROBLEMS

Directors of Food Services encounter new and unexpected problems frequently in management and operation. A survey of the heads of programs listed the following ten examples: (random order)

* Continuous rise in costs make accurate budgeting impossible

* Methods of purchasing today are obsolete tomorrow

* Replacement, repair and maintenance of equipment

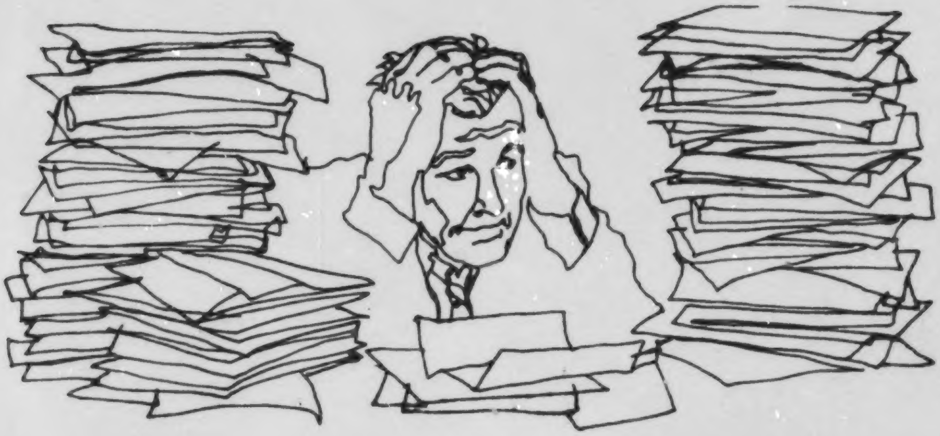
* Lack of quality personnel -- efficiency, interest, human relations, attitude toward training, punctuality

* Communications, especially at the lower levels

* Record keeping -- seemingly unnecessary "red tape"

* Unstable factors associated with federal subsidies

* Inadequate storage facilities
* Students misconduct
* Public misunderstanding



IMPLICATION FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

An individual can gain an abundance of information about the school by eating lunch in the cafeteria. This is the time when young people are in a natural situation. Their reactions to one another give a good indication of the total philosophy of the school and their attitudes toward it.

An attractive school cafeteria can create a good public image for the school. The use of a warm color of paint, curtains, decorations on counters and tables, and soft music will display a warm, friendly atmosphere. In order to encourage children to become interested in the cafeteria they might be allowed to make decorations to be placed on the counters and tables. Bulletin boards might be used to display their work. Working out a schedule where no one will find it necessary to stand in line more than a few minutes to be served and allowing jovial conversation will encourage children to eat in the school cafeteria.

Cafeteria managers who frequently come out of the kitchen and greet students or walk around and talk with some of them at tables do much to add to the pleasantness of the atmosphere. Cafeteria workers who serve can make the students feel welcome by having a smile for them as they come through the lines and by being able to call by name as many as possible. Cafeteria workers will be patient with the occasional trying behavior of young people if they realize that their daily acts of courtesy and consideration are important functions. Their efficiency as workers and their effectiveness as public relations agents will be considerably enhanced when school officials point out to them their specific responsibilities in the overall public relations program. (1:170-172)

Food services are brought to the attention of the public through the students, visitors, school personnel, and the media. School personnel often invite guests to have lunch with them in the cafeteria. Parents should be invited by the school during Public Schools Week, American Education Week, school lunch week, and other special times. The general appearance and atmosphere of the cafeteria will impress these guests either positively or negatively, creating either good or bad public relations for the school.

Brochures pointing out the advantages of eating in the school cafeteria are effective in improving public relations for the cafeteria. These brochures should stress health, economy, convenience, and nutrition. Cafeterias frequently get calls from parents for recipes their children tell them about at home. Many schools satisfy these requests by furnishing parents with recipes through newsletters and informal mimeographed form letters. The weekly menus published in local papers or school newsletters are helpful and create goodwill. These menus show parents that their children can eat well at noon without going home or taking a cold lunch, and help mothers avoid duplication in planning the evening meal. Publishing reminders of the cost of school lunches helps parents realize that they cannot prepare a similar meal at home for the same price.

Positive actions as described above are only suggestive of the many facets of good public relations. However, prevention of the negative is important. Care must be taken that food is fresh, that questionable food leftovers are never served, and that all employees working on any single day are free of contagious illnesses. One error in these respects can negate public relations so carefully planned and executed.

EVALUATION FOR IMPROVEMENT

The well managed and complete food service organization makes provision for continuous evaluation. One of the purposes is improvement. This is one activity of the school which is observed day by day, even hourly by personnel responsible for various aspects of the operation. Likewise, minor changes are made instantaneously as needed.

The major evaluation, however, should be purposeful, long-ranged, and organized. An instrument for the evaluation of food services and programs is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services. (7) It is divided into four major headings: Organization and Administration; Food Service Facilities; Business Practices; and Health and Sanitation. A national jury assisted in the compilation of the criteria and assignment of relative point values to each. The instrument is recommended for self-evaluation by school system personnel; use by a team of "outside" evaluators; and for the intitiation of a new program, the criteria can be used as guidelines.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for FOOD SERVICES

1. What are the chief problems that school cafeteria services cause for administrators? How can effective organization be applied to deal with these problems?

2. What is the Type A lunch? How is it supported financially? What are the difficulties with it? What are the alternatives to it?

3. Describe ways in which the cafeteria services of a school may be integrated into the instructional program? Why is this important?

4. Describe an organizational structure of a model food services program for a 12,000 student district. What are some alternate systems to the one you described?

5. Why is it important to have good fiscal accounting for food services?

6. What are the implications of food services for public relations?

7. Identify five or more major concepts about food services.

BUS STOP
SCHO

TRANSPORTATION SERVICES

CHAPTER IX

TRANSPORTATION SERVICES

Transporatation is one of the most important and vital services provided by a school system. If properly administered, it enhances the school's daily operation, its activities, program, the school atmosphere and public relations. Providing students with a safe and efficient access to school, especially in a large urban district or a sparsely populated rural district, is not a casual undertaking and must not be treated lightly. Proper administration of the service involves maintenance of vehicles, safety of pupils, selection and training of drivers, constant updating of routes, detailed record keeping, and enactment of policies consistent with governing statutes. The successful administrator will pay close attention to provision of the transportation service.

EVOLUTION

School transportation is a relatively recent development. The widespread use of school buses has come about in the last four decades with the movement to abolish the small inadequate school districts and to consolidate them into larger units. To illustrate: in the early 1930's there were about 130,000 school districts in the United States; in 1978, there were less than 15,000. Of course, the great expansion of high schools in this century has contributed greatly in the United States has multiplied more than 30 times since 1900 -- from 519,000 to nearly 17,000,000.

The schools of the United States have the second largest transportation system in the world according to the U.S. Department of Education. These school systems transport more than fifteen million pupils daily in two hundred thousand school buses, and at an estimated annual cost of more than one-half billion dollars. Today, about 40 percent (or about 19,000,000) students of all the school-age children in the nation are transported to and from school by bus.

Some of the factors which have influenced the growth and development of such a large transportation system are:

1. Improvement of rural roads and highways.

2. Establishment of consolidated or centralized schools.

3. Increased demands for more adequate educational opportunities for all children in all geographic areas.

4. Statutory provisions for pupil transportation in all states.

5. Growth of school enrollment.

6. Court approval of busing of parochial schools with public funds.

7. Improvement of motor transportation. (3:27[illegible]-9)

Also, the desegregation of schools, ordered by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1954, should be emphasized as a significant contributing factor in the growth of school transportation.

Safety of the student is a primary consideration. Prior to the National Conference on School Bus Standards in 1939, there were very few safety regulations. The convention formed the basis for many of the laws and regulatory measures now in effect, such as the so-called "School Bus Stop Law". Safety standards of school buses, standards for training programs of school bus drivers and many operating rules and practices now being employed grew out of the 1939 conferences.

OBJECTIVE OF SCHOOL TRANSPORTATION

The school administrator responsible for the operation of the school transportation system should have a broad set of objectives that influence the decisions made in operation of the pupil transportation services. Over a number of years, three general objectives have developed which have exerted influence at the local level and at the state level as well. The first of these objectives is to make transportation as safe for the pupil as is consistent with reasonable cost. A second general objective is to render adequate transportation services. The third objective is to increase the efficiency of the program.

To provide safe, economical transportation and adequate service to all of the eligible pupils is the primary responsibility of the school administration. To pursue any one of the objectives and ignore the others results in an untenable situation.

The necessity to improve the efficiency of pupil transportation should be a major objective of the director of transporation services. Inefficiency is often indicated by increased cost to the school district. The mobility of the population and the increasing numbers of subdivisions near larger cities require a consciousness of the problems of rerouting to serve students who cluster within school districts. The length of time a student rides the bus is another area of concern in the efficiency of the scheduling of bus routes.

MATERIAL RESOURCES: SUPPLIES, EQUIPMENT, AND FACILITIES

One of the first decisions facing a district with regard to transportation is how to provide the service. Basically there are three options from which to choose: (1) The district owned fleet, where the school system owns the vehicles, hires and supervises the employees and usually owns the required maintenance and storage facilities; (2) the privately owned fleet, where a school district contracts with a private company that provides buses and drivers, maintains the vehicles, and is responsible for providing reliable service; or (3) public transit, where school children must ride on regularly scheduled mass transportation or contrancts wtih the municipal authorities for transportation.

The third option listed has come under much criticism. The major problems which arise from lack of compliance with safety measures: there are no red lights on transit buses which warn motorists when pupils are being discharged or picked up; these buses frequently undergo a less than thorough bus inspection; are frequently overcrowded; have little or no control over students; and do not carry adequate signs to indicate that they are transporting students. If city transit buses must be used for pupil transportation, the National Safety Council representatives suggest that only junior and senior high school students use them.

When considering district transportation plans, the administrator must consider costs, availablility; of service, and responsibility to particular needs. Public transit, when available, is the least expensive but will also be the least available and the least responsive to district needs. Service contracted from private concerns is generally about 10% cheaper than a district-owned fleet for basic transportation to and from school. Other services, however, such as field trips and extra-curricular activities are more expensive and more difficult to coordinate and make available. "Using private contractors can allow you easily to alter the extent of services you provide without having to buy (or retire) extra buses, to train (or fire) drivers, or to build (or close) facilities. School systems with sharp fluctuations in enrollment would profit most from this flexibility." (14:36) ". . . Full time transportation by a contractor can provide several desirable qualities such as economy of operation, permanent and better trained drivers, superior equipment and higher standards of safety and maintenance than a district operated transportation service can normally provide." (6:18-19) On the other hand, the district-owned fleet requires a significant initial capital outlay but reduces operating costs and the service is readily available and responsive to administrative direction.

Some large districts combine the options, with a part of the service offered with district owned buses and a part either contracted or supplied by public transit. Smaller, rural schools sometimes form co-operative agreements among school districts with the fleet being jointly owned and operated. The county unit system of operation is an example of this cooperation. A large majority of districts, however, have chosen to purchase their own fleets, feeling that the convenience and control outweigh the overall cost factor.

Maintenance

When the district elects to own its own fleet, the administrator will eventually be faced with the question of whether or not to establish and maintain a bus repair shop and to what extent the school should maintain its own buses. There is no categorical answer to the question. Before the establishment and operation of a school-operated bus shop, the administrator should consider the following:

1. Is the service now available in the community at a fair price?
2. Is existing space available for a shop or will a new building be necessary ?
3. To what extent will the shop do major overhaul work?
4. How much will it cost to equip and operate the school-owned shop in comparison to the service and maintenance contemplated?
5. Does the size of the system of transportation justify the investment?

Two-Way Radios On School Buses

A standard sponsored by the National Commission on Safety Education, with reference to the use of two-way radios on school buses, has been implemented in some states.

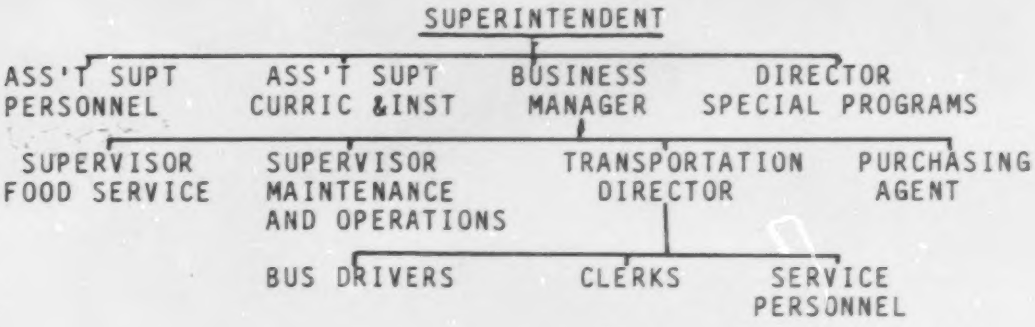
The high cost of two-way radio equipment kept school districts from installing this equipment when it was first used. Now the cost has been reduced so that it is feasible for school districts to make use of this equipment. This system allows the supervisor and the drivers to be in contact with each other at all times. Any breakdown, discipline problem, lost child, or a student left at a bus stop can be dealt with immediately and effectively. This system is considered to be a necessity in "first class" school operated transportation.

PERSONNEL RESOURCES

Transportation personnel requirements are directly related to the method choosen for providing the service. All of the methods of operation require an administrator with supervisory responsibility over the transportation services.

Requirements and Place in Organization

In the average size school district the administrator with responsibility for the transportation service generally has the title of Transportation Director or Supervisor of Transportation. In the general organization chart, this person will have a line type position and will be responsible to the business manager. In smaller districts, transportation may be one of the functions of the business manager, while in very large districts, the transportation director may be on the same administrative level as the business manager. The partial organization chart below shows the placement of the transportation service in a typical school district. In a large school district system the chart would be expanded; in the small system it would be compressed even to the extent that the superintendent would assume responsibility for transportation.


SUPERINTENDENT
ASS'T SUPT PERSONNEL
ASS'T SUPT CURRIC &INST
BUSINESS MANAGER
DIRECTOR SPECIAL PROGRAMS
SUPERVISOR FOOD SERVICE
SUPERVISOR MAINTENANCE AND OPERATIONS
TRANSPORTATION DIRECTOR
PURCHASING AGENT
BUS DRIVERS
CLERKS
SERVICE PERSONNEL

As a typical example, the chart has assumed the operation of a district-owned fleet since more than 80% of all districts choose this option. If either of the other options is chosen the lower level of the organization will be unnecessary. Transportation service personnel in this organization will consist of the director and a secretary.

The function of the director will differ greatly between the district-owned and non-owned service. In either of the non-owned type services the director will be primarily involved in contractual agreements, coordination of schedules between schools and bus companies, planning for the health and safety of pupils being transported, anad resolving conflicts between parents and the bus companies. With the district owned fleet a major function of the transportation director will be the selection and supervision of personnel. Additional functions will include planning bus routes for maximum service and efficiency, maintaining appropriate records for all phases of the transportation service, and evaluating the system in a constant effort to improve.

Qualifications

The person selected to supervise the transportation service should be one who possesses the qualities desirable in any other administrator. The transportation directoor must have the ability to work with people, the desire to support the organization, the capacity to work hard, and the mentality to deal with complicated transportation formulas and budgets. These qualifications are needed without regard to the method of offering the service. In very small districts which operate their own buses, the person may also need the qualifications of teacher or bus driver since the duties are sometimes shared.

When the district chooses to operate its own fleet of buses, it must become involved in te selection of drivers to provide its transportation.

Most states have a basic guide for the school administrator regarding state requirements on pupil transportation. Generally, local school boards are given the authority to strengthen the state requirements to suit their district needs. Some suggested criteria for bus drivers are:

1. Ability to meet legal requirements as to bonding and licensing.

2. Suitable age and physical condition.

3. Knowledge of children and ability to control pupils on the bus.

4. The ability to earn the confidence of parents whose children ride the bus.

5. Have knowledge of traffic rules and the willingness to observe them.

6. Possess an understanding of the operation of his bus.

7. Have personal pride in the appearance of his bus.

8. Willingness to participate in driver training programs.

Rhode Island has a set of standards for their school bus drivers which indicate a genuine respect and concern for the safety and welfare of both the children and the school bus driver. Two requirements of particular interest are quoted as follows:

> Physical Examination: A certificate of physical fitness issued by a physician and a test of vision are required. In the event the school bus driver suffers an illness of 30 days or more, he must upon request of the proper school official, be recertified as physically fit before being permitted to drive a school bus.
>
> Special School Bus License or Permit: Must hold a chauffeur's license and be at least 25 years of age with a clear driving recoord; pass a written test on the law and safe driver practices and be approved to drive a school bus by the local chief of police and the proper school district official (3:71-81).

Texas not only requires a physical examination by a licensed physician before the beginning of each school year, but a check of bus drivers' driving records must be made. Also, the bus driver must have in his possession a document certifying his completion of an approved driver training course in school bus safety education.

Job Descriptions

In any well organized school district, each position within the district which has supervisory responsibilites will have a comprehensive job description written for that position. The position of transportation director belongs in this category. The following document is an example of how the job description might be written for a middle-sized district which owns and maintains its own fleet of buses. (College Station Independent School District, College Station, Texas).

Duties and Responsibilities of the Transportation Director:

The Director of Transportation is responsible to the Assistant Superintendent for Finance and Business Affairs for the maintenance of motor vehicles owned by the school district and the operation of the Pupil Transportation System. Specific duties and responsibilities include the following:

I. Determine bus rider eligibility for each school campus.

  A. Measure the distance from a specified point by driving to the two mile limit.

  B. Mark the two-mile limits on a map and supply each school with such a map.

II. Establish bus routes where and when needed.

  A. Designate each route on a map and supply each school with such a map of each route. Maintain a written description of each route.

  B. Approve any route changes if or when they are needed.

  C. Maintain a rider list for each route, designating the eligible and ineligible riders. Revise this list monthly and provide a copy to the schools and the driver of the route.

III. Assign buses and drivers to routes and designate which bus each student will ride. Answer inquiries and complaints from school personnel and parents.

IV. Apply to the T.E.A. for approval of new routes or significant changes in previously approved routes.

V. Prepare the annual T.E.A. transportation report.

  A. Approved route number.

  B. Distance traveled on each route.

  C. Number of miles of surfaced and unsurfaced roads on each route.

  D. Model and rated capacity of the buses assigned to each route.

  E. The total number of eligible students transported on each approved route.

  F. The largest number of eligible students transported on the bus at one time.

VI. Recruit, hire, train and supervise bus drivers.

VII. Maintain records on all drivers to insure that they meet all legal requirements: (1) Chauffeur license; (2) Department of Public Safety (DPS) driving record. Obtain this information on each driver from DPS; (3) Signed agreement between driver and school; (4) maintain record of driver participation in training as established by T.E.A.; (5) physical examination; (6) T.B. test.

VIII. Provide each driver with a copy of the "Handbook for School Transportation Personnel". Revise and reprint each summer.

IX. Approve the use of and assign school buses for extra and cocurricular trips.

- A. Receive requests for trips.
- B. Fill out a dispatch form for each trip.
  - 1. secure driver(s) and assign buses
  - 2. record driver's time
  - 3. record distance traveled
  - 4. record gasoline and oil used and cost
  - 5. certify payment to driver
  - 6. compute bus cost
- C. Fill our a confirmation and driver information form for each trip.
  - 1. driver, date and bus number
  - 2. destination, person in charge and departure time and place
  - 3. route to travel and service points

X. Supervise the maintenance and service of all school vehicles.

- A. Establish and supervise service maintenance procedures.
  - 1. maintain individual service records on all vehicles
  - 2. maintain individual maintenance records on all

vehicles.

B. Make periodic reports to business office.

1. cost of maintaining vehicles
2. cost of operating vehicles
3. cost of gasoline and oil used for travel other than pupil transportation
4. assignment budget codes

XI. Initiate purchases made through the State Board of Control.

A. Tires, tubes, batteries

B. Tire recapping

C. School buses

XII. Determine the need for the purchase of replacement or additional new buses. Make recommendations to the Assistant Superintendent for Finance.

XIII. Determine the cost of transporting non-eligible students. Make recommendations to the Assistant Superintendent for Finance.

XIV. Investigate all bus accidents and make a written report to the Assistant Superintendent for Finance.

XV. Design, print and maintain an adequate supply of forms.

XVI. Carry out any other responsibiites as assigned by the Assistant Superintendent for Finance.

Determining Bus Routes

The director of transportation should utilize the administrators, bus drivers, and business office personnel in laying out bus routes or any route changes that might occur. Alternations in old or existing routes may become necessary at almost any time during the school year.

A computerized bus system is more effective than manual scheduling in that it provides ". . . bus scheduled runs with minimum travel time, student names and directions for the bus driver, precise totals of run travel time, student load and unload time and distance, minimum deadhead travel time between bus scheduled runs, and resultant minimum number of contract carrier buses assigned." (2:34-35).

New sub-divisions and school building openings, a decrease in population in a certain area, or the development of expressways within a school district are common reasons for constant re-evaluation and adjustment of transportation routes within the districts.

The school administrator should maintain a map of the school district which completely describes all routes and the types of road surfaces of each route. The following are suggestions for the construction of such transportation maps.

METHOD FOR DESCRIBING BUS ROUTES

INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

ROUTE RUN TIME DPT. TIME

PLEASE NOTE - ALL BUS ROUTES ARE TO BE MEASURED FROM THE LAST SCHOOL SERVED.

BUS DEPARTS AND PROCEEDS AS FOLLOWS:
1.TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
2.TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
3.TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
4.TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
5.TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
6.TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
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12TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
13TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
14TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )
15TURN ON AND PROCEED MILES TO ( )

TOTAL 1 TRIP
MORNING: MILES
DAILY: MILES
TOTAL 2 TRIPS:
MORNING: MILES
DAILY: MILES

DO NOT INCLUDE CALLS UNDER .5 MILES.
IF YOUR ABOVE-GRADE PUPILS ARE TRANSPORTED TO ANOTHER CAMPUS, SHOW ADDITIONAL CALLS IN THE ROUTE DESCRIPTION TO THE RECEIVING SCHOOL AND RETURN TO THE CAMPUS OF BEGINNING. (11:36)

Hazardous Area Route Descriptions

A bus that operates for hazardous area children only is described the same as a regular bus route description and labeled hazardous.

If a bus serves both hazardous area children and two-mile eligible children, two route descriptions must be furnished. One description is written exactly as the bus would have traveled if only two-mile eligible children were served. The hazardous or supplementary route description will be written exactly as the bus will travel to serve both two-mile eligible children and eligible hazardous area children.

1. Outline the boundaries of the school district on the map. Locate the schools of the district.
2. Locate railroads, streams and similar barriers.
3. Draw in roads, designating their condition as paved, improved, graded or dirt.
4. Mark bridges, grade crossings and other hazards with appropriate symbols.
5. Locate homes with such symbols as the following:
   a. Mark those homes that have pupils with a square.
   b. Where the homes have pupils to be transported, put the number of pupils inside the square, thus
   c. If the children are not to be transported, put the figure at the right of the square, thus
   1.
   d. If the children are under school age, put the number at the left of the square, thus 3
6. Total the number of pupils to be transported. Using the scale of the map, determine the total mileage of the shortest route by which all pupils may be reached.
7. Lay out tentative routes. Avoid retraces whenever possible. The starting points will be the bus garage unless the driver takes the bus home overnight.
8. Total the number of pupils on each route. This total will show the capacity of the bus needed.
9. Check each route, adjusting if necessary, to keep within

the time limit.

10. Revise the routes during the year to take account for any shift in population, changes in road conditions, bridges, etc.

Operating under the transportation formula, it is necessary for the administrator to maintain a map of his district as prescribed above, although it does not have to be in such detail. However, the administrator needs to plan for future bus routes and to evaluate the function of the transportation system as the year progresses. It is a favorable practice that every bus route be established as soon as possible following a school year for the ensuing year.

All school bus routes must be approved by local boards and by the state agency if reimbursement is made by the state. Independent school districts are, as a general practice, given the authority to operate their own transportation systems within state regulations. In some cases the routes of independent school districts must be approved by the county board of education.

Upon the establishment of a bus route, the administrator must assign a bus of proper capacity to the route to stay within the legal provisions and he must submit to the state education agency an annual transportation report. Therefore, the administrator must have a method to determine, during the school year, how many eligible students are actually riding the school bus. The following are examples of widely used methods in calculating bus rider credit for formula purposes:

1. The average number of pupils transported the last day of each of the first five months of school.

2. The average number of pupils transported the last school day in each of the first three six-week periods.

3. Number of eligible pupils transported on the first Monday in February.

Job descriptions for other personnel within the transportation department normally need not be as detailed or as specific. Each individual employee could be required to write a job description for the position held. General suggestions for the bus driver would include the following:

(1) The driver follows the prescribed route and schedule as established.

(2) The driver conforms to national, state, and local

laws.

(3) The driver practices good public relations policies with riders and other citizens.

(4) The driver maintains proper care of equipment and reports any malfunctions immediately.

In addition to these general standards, each district will need to develop additional, more specific aspects of the job to meet its unique situation.

Staff Development

Employment of bus drivers is often the most trying task facing the administrator. The selection and training of qualified bus drivers is one of the most important aspects of the organization and administration of a safe, economical and efficient transportation system. In the final analysis the driver will determine the success or failure of a transportation program.

When selecting personnel to operate buses, the administrator looks for certain qualifications. After employment, the school district has an obligation to itself and to the employee to provide the employee with continuous in-service opportunity to maintain skills and qualify for advancement.

Some important items that should be included in in-service training for bus drivers are: Overview of the state program; qualification and responsibility of school bus drivers; care and maintenance of buses; school bus safety; statutes governing school bus operation; responsiblity of administration, parents and pupils; and actual physical operation of a school bus by the drivers. Special attention should be given new and inexperienced drivers and to all drivers when new different type equipment is purchased.

Driver workshops are usually sponsored as combined effort of independent school districts, a group of districts, and annual workshops conducted by universities and state agencies. Consultants employed as experts to conduct demonstrations and teach at the workshops are obtained from industry, local safety organizations, and state departments of public saftey.

In addition to regulary scheduled in-service programs, the district should provide a written policy relative to advancement in position and/or salary. To maintain motivation among the employees, it is good practice to promote qualified persons within the department to leadership roles when positions become available.

Another good practice for the school administrator is to attach the proper amount of importance to the position of bus driver. It only takes a minute to express appreciation for a job well done and the effort will be repaid tenfold. If the bus driver is made to feel needed and somewhat special, problems will decrease and efficiency will improve. For this reason the administrator should learn the names of bus drivers and speak to them, using their names. These practices are not budgeted items, but they require daily effort and produce immense dividends.

Encouraging original thinking and considering new ideas from employees can reward the administrator with a motivated, performance oriented staff. The administrator should maintain a positive attitude toward improvement and an open mind for suggestions. Credit should be given to the originator of a new idea. In an article on administrative techniques, James Hays says, "Never put your name on someone else's innovation or let it become absorbed by a larger plan. That only encourages disillusionment and gives employees the impression that there is no advantage in positive and original thinking." (7:12-4)

FINANCIAL RESOURCES

One of the most important aspects of proper administration of any activity is effective and efficient allocation of financial resources. Poor management in this area can result in spending money wastefully. There is little justification for operating a school that is financially prosperous but educationally poor. To avoid this catastrophe, each aspect of the school program, including transportation, should operate within a carefully constructed budget.

Budgeting

Budgeting phases can be seperated into four major categories: construction, adoption, administration, and evaluation. Constructing the budget for transportation should be a participatory effort by the persons involved in providing the services financed within the budget. Adoption will be made by the governing body of the school district with the transportation budget included within the total school budget. Principal administration will come under the supervision of the transportation director and be carried out by the members of the transportation department. Evaluation will also be a prime responsibility of the transportation director with recommendations for revision being made when necessary.

According to Candoli, et al., the benefits of budgeting are:

1. It establishes a plan of action for the future.
2. It requires an appraisal of past activities in relation to planned activites.
3. It necessitates the establishement of work plans.
4. It necessitates forseeing expenditures and estimating revenues.
5. It requires orderly planning and coordination throughout the organization.
6. It establishes a system of management controls.
7. It serves as a public information system. (1:146).

Although there is no evidence of conformity among districts for a standard transportation budget, The United States Department of Education lists the following major headings as items to include in the budget.

Pupil Transportation Services - - 500 Series

510	Salaries
510 a	Supervisors
510 b	Drivers
510 c	Mechanics and Other Garage Employees
510 d	Clerks and Other Employees
520	Contracted Services and Public Carriers
530	Replacements of Vehicles
530 a	Cash Purchase
530 b	Lease-Purchase and Installment-Purchase
540	Pupil Transportation Insurance
550	Expenditures in Lieu of Transportation
560	Other Expenses for Operation and Maintenance
560 a	Gasoline
560 b	Lubricants
560 c	Tires and Tubes
560 d	Repair Parts
560 e	Supplies and Expenses for Garage Operation
560 f	Garage and Garage Equipment Repairs
560 g	Maintenance of Vehicles by Private Garages
560 h	Rent
560 i	Miscellaneous (10:193)

Accounting and Record Keeping

A complete record of individual buses and the cost of the total operation should be maintained. The individual cost record of each bus will in some instances indicate that the bus is no longer suitable for economic operation. Also, excessive or increasing maintenance figures might indicate driver abuse of the school bus. These records can assist the management in the selection of makes and models in bus purchases. Records of actual transportation expenses for the entire school year include such items as: (1) driver wages; (2) gasoline; (3) lubrication, including oil; (4) mechanical repairs; (5) interior repairs; (6) body repairs; (7) insurance; (8) interest on bus notes; (9) total expenses; (10 age of bus; (11) make and capacity of bus; and (12) route, number and driver.

Records of this type will allow the administrator the opportunity to watch economic aspects of his buses as a whole or on an individual basis. Also, the age-expense ratio will indicate when a bus has passed its point of economy and should be taken out of regular service.

Purchasing of supplies and equipment for transportation is to a great extent controlled by the transportation formula. The state permits the operation of a county-wide transportation system (in county-unit states) or independent school district to operate their own transportation systems. Under these circumstances, certain purchasing procedures must be followed, including the purchases of buses, tires, tire recapping and batteries. Other maintenance supplies and equipment may be purchased directly from the area contractor by either the county or independent school district.

In addition to annual records kept by the director, maintenance records should be kept for each bus and each driver should make a daily check of the bus to be driven. The following examples are forms which could be used for these purposes.

(Examples of the type of maintenance record that could be kept on each bus)

MAINTENANCE RECORD

Bus No. ________________________ Inspection Sticker Date ____________

Date: ________________________ Type of Repairs: ____________________

Date: ________________________ Type of Repairs: ____________________

Date: ________________________ Type of Repairs: ____________________

Oil Changed: Date: ____

Date: ____

Date: ____

Tire Replaced: Date: __________________ Tire:(ex.Rt Frt) ________

Date: __________________ Tire: ____________________

Date: __________________ Tire: ____________________

Anti-freeze: Date:____________________________

Date:____________________________

Date:____________________________

(Example of the type of daily bus check that could be used each day)

DAILY BUS CHECK

Date:_______________ Bus no.____________ Driver__________

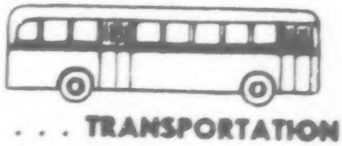
1. Lights: a. Head Lights______ d. Directional_______
   b. Tail Lights______ e. Unloading Flashers_____
   c. Flashers_______ f. Dome__________
2. Oil Leaks__________ Water Leaks_______ Gas Leaks______
3. Oil Level
4. Water
5. Radiator Hoses__________ Fan Belts______________
6. Hood Latched__________
7. Tires________________ Battery_______ _______
8. Windshield__________ Wipers________________
9. Windows____________ Mirrors________________
10. Emergency Door________
11. General Bus Conditions Outside________ Inside_____
12. Emergency Equipment______________
13. Horn______________
14. Gauges: a. Fuel______________ d. Temperature______
    b. Oil Pressure_______ e. Air Pressure_____
    c. Ammeter____________
15. Fuel_______________

END OF RUN - Close Windows___ Check for left articles___
General Condition of Bus___.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

Public Relations Through Transportation Services:

The transportation of school children to and from classes each day by school bus is a real feat. "The bus, with its priceless cargo, must get through and, at the same time, the driver must maintain order among the children, watch for stops, and run on schedule. This makes school bus drivers candidates for unsung heroes of today's education family." (7).



The public relations activities of persons in school transportation are to interpret their policies to the public and others, thereby fostering and increasing goodwill. The community must know that its children are being transported safely to and from school by competent, considerate drivers. Reporters and editors are often willing to print articles complete with pictures telling the public about the recruiting and training courses for new school bus drivers, about school bus safety week or other programs. Magazines dealing with school bus safety usually welcome articles from school districts that tell the story of their transportation programs. Local radio and television stations tell the community about driver training and safety programs. Films showing a normal day's operation of a school bus can help the community see how the system works and dispel many fears about the safety of their children. Parents should be encouraged to visit the transportation center where buses are kept and repaired. Home visits made by school personnel to new families in the community or who have children who are entering school for the first time often clear up for parents many questions and fears.

PUPIL BEHAVIOR ON BUS

Many concerns of parents will be alleviated if they feel that children are well-supervised while riding the bus. For this reason, it is good for the district to have an established policy with regard to discipline problems. Since the actual discipline of the student will probably fall upon the school attended, the driver must be acquainted with the principal of the school served. One policy which will insure that bus problems are handled but also that drivers do not abuse the use of the form would be to send a warning note home after the second form is turned in and require the parent or parents to come in for a conference when the third offense takes place. Of course, the final discipline can always be removal of the right of the student to ride the bus. Discipline on the bus requires parent cooperation.

According to the National Safety Council, most deaths involving school buses occur while students are leaving or boarding buses, not while they are riding. The logical place for kids to learn about safety, then, is in the classroom, where teachers can take the time to explain the rationale behind safety rules.

Report of Misconduct -- School Bus Transportation

Student Name:______________________________ Time:__________ Date:______

School:______________________________Bus No.:________ Driver:__________

Circle numbers

1. Disobedient or impudent to driver.
2. Moving while bus is in motion.
3. Sticking hands or heads out of windows.
4. Throwing objects from (at) bus.
5. Throwing objects in the bus.
6. Scuffling or fighting.
7. Unusually loud talking or laughing.
8. Tampering with bus or equipment.
9. Using tobacco or drugs.
10. Obscene language.
11. Littering the bus.
12. Disturbing others.

Explanation or Comments:

Disposition by Principal:

To promote acceptance of disciplinary measures and avoid misunderstandings, the district should publish and distribute to its patrons a set of regulations relative to pupil transportation. Shown below is an example of such regulations.

SCHOOL BUS RULES & REGULATIONS

Rider Eligibility: Students living more than two miles from the school they attend may be assigned to and ride a bus at no cost to them.

Students living less than two miles from the school they attend and riding a bus will be charged a fee, payable at the school they attend.

Safety Rules & Regulations: Safety and comfort of the bus rider is the concern of those responsible for the operation of the bus system. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to have rules for all.

1. The bus driver has the same authority as a teacher when the bus is in operation. Students should show the same respect to the driver as they do a teacher.

2. The driver is in complete charge of the bus and the students. His instructions must be obeyed.

3. The driver is to report disorderly conduct on the bus to the school officials. Disobedience that is offensive and dangerous to others may result in the suspension of bus riding privileges.

4. The use of tobacco or drugs is prohibited on the buses.

5. The use of profane or vulgar lanaguage will not be tolerated.

6. Riders are to be picked up and let off at designated stops only.

7. Riders must be at their stop on time, ready to load when the bus stops.

8. Riders are to line up in single file for loading at the home stop and at school.

9. Riders must remain in their places while the bus is in motion.

10. Unloading at a stop:

    a. Riders that live on the right hand side, unload and to move immediately away from the bus.

    b. Riders that live on the left hand side and need to cross a road or street, unload and move immediately 5 or 6 steps past the front of the bus. Then move across in front of the bus until they can see both ways on the road or street anad wait for the driver to signal them to move across the road.

11. Buses are required to stop at all railroad crossing and stop signs.

12. School bus speed limits:

    a. All roads and highways - 50 m.p.h. maximum

    b. Traffic, weather, and road conditions dictate slower, prudent speed.

13. In case of mechanical trouble, the riders and drivers are to stay with the bus. The driver may get help from passing motorists or communicate by two-way radio with the transportation superisor.

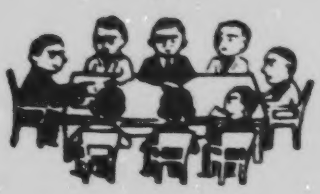
Citizen Involvement

Application of the Community Education concept in transportation services can make a significant contribution to the success of the program. Many parents and other adults are willing to serve the school in voluntary capacities. Involvement of citizens in planning the service is a positive step in securing suppport of patrons for the program. Use of volunteers in providing the transportation services will convey a feeling of "ownership" and therefore support by the persons involved. This procedure relates to the public a first hand information system relative to the operation of the service. When volunteers are made to feel that a valuable contribution is made, benefits are maximal; if they are being exploited, the reaction is negative. Careful planning is vital in the use of volunteers. Volunteers should not be placed in positions of contingent liability. Use as observers on buses, clerical help, and assistants in maintenance is advisable but volunteers should not drive or supervise student safety.

STATUTORY RESOURCES

Legal Provisions for Transportation:

A study of the legal provisions for providing transportation services on a national scale revealed five major conclusions concerned with legal provisions and bases for transportation services. These are:



- The legal basis for providing pupils transportation in most of the states rests not in a single law but rather in a number of permissive and mandatory statutory provisions.

- There is little uniformity to be found in the statutory provisions which give specific legal authorization for pupil transportation services in various states.
- Specific legal provisions exist in all states for the transportation of the handicapped.
- Legal authorization to transport pupils for curricular and extra-curricular purposes is provided. Transportation for this purpose is a general practice, although not specifically mentioned in law. (5).

The extension of school busing to parochial school students began with a decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in 1930 regarding a Louisiana case. This case was not concerned with busing, but with the legality of using public funds to furnish textbooks to parochial as well as public school students, on the child benefit theory. This theory is grounded in the concept that there are certain services to children, rather than to schools as such. In a New Jersey 1947, the transporting of parochial school students was held constitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court. Following this decision, states began to provide transportation for parochial school pupils. (10:350-2).

From these conclusions it is apparent that the administrator of transportation services must study the provisions peculiar to his own area, due to the lack of uniformity of the statutory provisions among the states.

A study of the school transportation laws reveals that the operation and establishment of the school transportation system is left largely in the control of the local school authorities while subject to certain specifications imposed by the state.

Specific state regulations will be found in documents published by the state education agencies and based on enactments of the state legislative body.

Local Board Policies

Each school district should have its own policies, tailored to its specific needs and written in compliance with national, state, and local statutes. Local policies should include such things as: legal and physical qualifications for personnel; duties and responsibilities of each position; eligibility of students and limitations of the use of buses; school bus rules and regulations; and authorization of procedures to be used in case of accidents or other emergencies.

EVALUATION

Examination of special services within school districts often reveals a service so underused that justification of the department is difficult. This is especially true in the school-owned transportaion system. To allow a fleet of expensive equipment to remain idle except for runs to and from school is poor management. The transportation director should work with curriculum planners to utilize the service as an integral part of the educational process. Field trips, extra-curricular activities, and community projects should utilize buses to optimize the transportation service. Extended use of vehicles to provide additional educational benefits helps to justify the service and reduces the pupil-mile cost ratio.

The extent of utilization should be a major factor in evaluation of the service. Other areas for consideration in evaluating the transportaion service are uses of material resources, personnel resources, financial resources, community resources, and statutory resources to meet the expressed needs of the district.
To prevent stagnation within the service, continual

evaluation of transportation should be conducted. An instrument for the evaluation of transportation services is included in Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services. (8). The instrument is designed for self-evaluation by consultants, or for use as guidelines in establishing policies for transportation services.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for TRANSPORTATION SERVICES

1. Which students in your school system are you legally bound to provide transportation services? What additional students do you wish to provide transportation?

2. What are reasons supporting the concept of school district ownership and operation of its bus fleet?

3. If a loaded bus stalls on the road, what procedural steps are required of the bus driver?

4. If a driver fails to pick up a student at a pickup point, what established procedure alleviates the problem?

5. What authority should be given the bus driver relative to handling discipline on the bus?

6. What should comprise driver training/inservice programs?

7. What special services are provided to transport handicapped students to and from school?

8. The transportation budget in a school has risen rapidly in recent years. Using budget categories in the text as a guide, suggest specific procedures to achieve greater economic efficiency.

Textbook Services

CHAPTER X

TEXTBOOK SERVICES

The textbook remains a significant teaching tool in American education despite the explosive development of new types of instructional media and technological innovations. The vital role played by the textbook in the public schools has been dramatically demonstrated by the findings of the National Education Association in its Project on Instruction. This report points out that 1442 respondees to a questionnaire on instructional media unanimously answered "the textbook," when asked which materials and resources were most helpful in developing a teaching program. The report concluded:

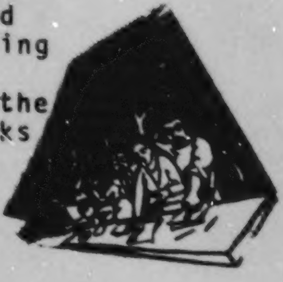
> The textbook was the resource listed by both elementary and secondary principals as the one most useful for a teaching program. (10:1).

Speaking quite positively regarding the place the textbook occupies in education, Sternig says:

> For the immediate future textbooks will be a necessity, for the obvious reason that there will never be enough scholars in each subject available in every classroom . . . The knowledge needed as a foundation for new learning, must therefore be available in some recorded form. This is the proper function of a textbook in the broadest sense--and in this sense the textbook may have a shape and a format quite different from the past. (14:114).

The role of the textbook is not likely to decline. New formats, new modes of illustrating, new styles of writing may alter the traditional appearance of the American textbook but that text materials will remain at the heart of the educational program seems subject to little doubt. Speaking of the expanded role of the textbook, a study by the National Education Association says:

> The textbook's most important contributions to education lie ahead. As films, television, and recordings are reinforcing and extending learning and assisting teaching by means of sound and picture, authors and publishers are improving the educational impact of print. New types of books and new ways of using print to teach, such as programming, are adding new dimensions of flexibility and efficiency to teaching and learning. (11:13).



In addition to its value as a teaching tool, the textbook plays a major role in preserving and transmitting the cultural heritage of America. The textbook is now and will in the future assume an even larger role in the transfer of scientific knowledge, technology and the social sciences from the developed to the developing countries. The National Education Association reports optimistically:

> The significant position held by the textbook as an instructional tool and the financial requirements for making these tools available indicate the vital concern that school administrators must have for their proper selection and use. Rightfully they are concerned with the problems and practices involved in organizing and administering textbook services. Emphasis is placed upon the selection of textbook materials at both the state and local levels, financing, budgeting, purchasing and especially the role of the administrator in implementing the proper use of text materials in the classroom.

DEFINITIONS

The terms "textbooks" and "text materials" include those books or materials particularly organized for teaching and learning subject matter primarily in a classroom situation. Shores has said, "A textbook is any book used by a teacher and a student as a basis for content and organization of a course of study." (13:38). Brown and Norberg are more succinct when they state that a textbook is "a course of study in print." (3:180). Although library materials and other supplementary media are not categorically textbooks, related materials such as films, transparencies, workbooks and activity sheets, which are an integral part of a basic text program, should be subject to the same standards of selection and administration as the basic text.

Text materials are considered separate and apart from other instructional materials primarily because they are financed by and subject to varying degrees of state regulation and because they therefore usually require separate accounting. There is a trend toward placing the local distribution of textbooks within the operation of the "Instructional Materials Center." In presenting this idea, Brown and Norberg say:

> Quite obviously then, the school textbook program is seen to require professional consideration. In more and more situations the responsibility for coordinating activities related to their appraisal, selection, processing, distribution and maintenance are delegated to educational media center personnel whose duties encompass the total educational media field. (1:178).

For those schools having to make a strict accounting for books to a higher agency there are some problems in such an arrangement. Others object that this all-encompassing system would be a detriment to proper balance between printed materials and "soft goods" that accompany "teaching hardware." Erickson recommends keeping textbooks in a category by themselves:

> Textbook procurement and distribution throughout a school district is a print medium service that is fundamental to teaching patterns everywhere. It must be dealt with by a well established set of policies covering all operational phases. It is a problem of such magnitude and urgency that it is almost always separated from other print medium service. (5:136).

At this point the inclusion of textbooks in the Instructional Materials Center is still a "trend" which may not materialize because of organizational and administrative differences.

HISTORY

While textbooks had their beginning in Europe, the impetus for the tremendous expansion of textbook publishing and use may be found in the growth of the system of free public education in America. As early as 1540, Henry VIII called for the first governmentally prescribed textbook when he decreed that all schools in England should use Lily's Grammar. Early in the history of America, the forerunners of the modern textbook began to appear. First there was the "Hornbook" used in the Dame schools. The New

England Primer began its erratic career in 1687 in religious classes and later appeared in several revisions for use in sectarian situations. Webster's "Blueback Speller" made its appearance in 1783. Another milestone was set with the introduction of McGuffey's Eclectic Readers over the period from 1836 to 1857.

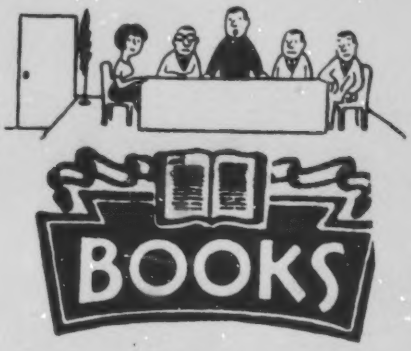
The expansive nature and rapid growth of American textbooks were largely determined by social and cultural changes of the times. The influence of the Reformation coupled with a desire for religious freedom set off a new feeling for public education and a noncomittant need for reading material. Reflecting a new interpretation of the English language "American Style", Webster's Speller by 1818 had sold five million copies. The strength of the McGuffey books lay in their closeness to the things of the then everyday life of the common people, especially country folk.

The history of textbooks in America reflects our social history and a closer look at them will provide more than a cursory examination of education itself.

The first state to prescribe textbooks for use in public schools in America was Massachusetts which adopted textbook regulations by statute in 1884. Maine followed this action in 1889 and by 1900, twelve states had enacted some type of legislation relative to the use of textbooks in public schools. Concern for providing textbooks at state expense arose in Texas in 1890 and became law in 1891.

By 1934 twenty-five states had mandatory statutes calling for free textbooks and provided procedures relating to selection and use; whereas, twenty states had permissive statutes relating to textbook selection and administration by local schools. It is significant to note that in 1918, Texas became the first state to actually provide free textbooks to all pupils in public schools. This action was unique in that it was accomplished by constitutional amendment, a move not hitherto attempted by a state. As an example of the magnitude of free textbooks, the Texas 1979-80 budget for adopted books was $76,100,000.

ADOPTION PRACTICES



The "adoption" of textbooks refers to the choice of books made by a central governing authority in compiling a list of approved texts that may be used by the schools within its jurisdiction. In such situations, the choosing of books from the adopted list becomes a matter of "selection" at the local level. In this context, the choice of books in "state adoption states" and in so-called "open-territory" is referred to as selection. State uniformity is confined to the South and Far West, while New England, the great Lakes region and the Prarie States have maintained their tradition of local selection.

The Texas Legislature passed a law in 1977 which contains a provision which made the adoption of learning systems possible. It gave the State Board of Education the authority to provide systems in subject areas selected by the Commissioner of Education. Recent rulings by the attorney general's office concerning the charging of "book fees" to the students by the schools, have increased the need for the state to provide more than just a textbook. (15:17).

States follow four basic patterns in making adoptions in their respective school systems. Glass lists and defines these methods as follows:

> Basal (single) means that some authoritative board has selected the particular textbook to be used in all of the schools of that particular state.
>
> Multiple means some authority has named three or more textbooks or series each, from which each school district is to make a choice.
>
> Listing means that publishers must file price lists or catalogs every one or more years. (No adoption is made).
>
> Open means that each school district selects books to be used without any restrictions whatever. (6:23).

Some states make "cobasal" adoptions--a step between "basal" and "multiple" choices.

An examination of the literature and practices in the field indicates a trend toward multiple listing. A few states still follow the single basal idea to some extent. California was the last state to call for single basal adoptions in elementary subjects only. The tendency seems to be toward more rigid policies in elementary textbook adoptions with more leniency allowed the high schools.

The most common practice in multiple adoption states is to adopt from three to five books in each subject matter and grade level area. Some states have no fixed number limitations. Texas, as is true in many other states, specifically sets a maximum limit of five for any subject matter area.

Adoption practices and procedures vary from state to state in regard to such matters as the size and composition of adoption groups, the lengths of terms of office, rules governing the adoption process and the scope of authority. In Texas, for example there is a state committee of fifteen members, all of whom must be teachers from local school districts. They serve a term of one year. Their activity is based upon a proclamation by the State Board of Education which prescribes the limits of study. The committee is autonomous, however, insofar as its procedures are concerned. By contrast, in some states the committee is composed of local superintendents, state officials and representatives from the Colleges of Education of the several state universities.

FINANCIAL PRACTICES

Practices in financing the cost of textbooks vary widely from state to state. There are states such as Texas that pay the total basal textbook bill and for some supplementary textbooks, contrasted with those states that leave the entire financing of such purchases to local sources. Table I indicates the general practices of the several states. Some states allocate funds for basal books only. Others confine their assistance to special subject areas. A few states make per capita allocations for general instructional materials purposes and assume that some of the money will be spent for basal books. The practice of furnishing text materials free of charge to students is increasing in the United States.

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TABLE .: ADOPTION, FINANCING AND PURCHASING PRACTICES

STATE	Adoption		Financing		Purchasing	
	State	Local	State	Local	State	Local
Alabama	x		x	x	x	x
Alaska	x		x		x	
Arizona	x		x	x		x
Arkansas	x		x		x	
California	x(E)	x(H)	x(E)	x(H)	x(E)	x(H)
Colorado		x		x		x
Connecticut		x		x		x
Delaware		x	x	x		x
Florida	x		x		x	
Georgia	x		x			x
Hawaii	x		x		x	
Idaho		x		x		x
Illinois		x		x		x
Indiana	x			x		x
Iowa		x		x		x
Kansas		x		x		x
Kentucky	x		x(E)	x(H)	x(E)	x(H)
Louisiana	x		x			x
Maine		x	x	x		x
Maryland		x		x		x
Massachusetts		x		x		x
Michigan		x		x		x
Mississipppi	x		x		x	
Missouri		x	x	x		x
Minnesosta		x		x		x
Montana		x		x		x
Nebraska		x		x		x
Nevada	x			x		x
New Hampshire		x		x		x
New Jersey		x		x		x
New Mexico	x		x		x	
New York		x	x	x		x
North Carolina	x		x		x	
North Dakota		x	x	x		x
Ohio		x	x	x		x
Oklahoma	x		x		x	
Oregon	x			x		x
Pennsylvania		x		x		x
Rhode Island		x	x	x		x
South Carolina	x		x		x	
South Dakota		x		x		x
Tennessee	x		x			x
Texas	x		x		x	
Utah	x		x	x		x
Vermont		x		x		x
Virginia	x		x			x
Washington		x	x	x		x
West Virginia	x		x	x		x
Wisconsin		x	x			x
Wyoming		x	x			x(2)

*Survey of State Departments of Education by John E. Barden-1972.

The increasing cost of books is causing parents to urge more and more schools to look for alternatives in the way book purchases are financed. In 1966, 29% of the school districts in the United States used some form of rental system. This increased from 19% in 1959. School officials must take into account the financial impact of textbook costs to parents and further that many economically deprived students are often without text materials. The vast amount of money being made available through various Federal funds is having a profound effect upon the availability of materials as well as the concept of administrators in regard to methods of financing their purchase.

STATE-LOCAL REVENUES

A nationwide study prepared by a joint group of the National Education Association and the American Textbook publisher's Institute proposes desired standards of expenditure that a school system should make if it is to provide students with an adequate supply of printed materials. The study offers the following recommendations:

Elementary

For each new elementary pupil, grades 1 through 6, the initial outlay to equip him with a supply of printed instructional materials should be $42.00.

For each elementary pupil, grades 1 through 6, now enrolled in school, the annual current expenditure to provide for the yearly replacement cycle of printed instructional materials should be $14.00.

Secondary

For each new secondary school student, grades 7 through 12, the initial outlay to equip him with a supply of printed instructional materials should be $63.00.

For each secondary school student, in grades 7 through 12, now enrolled in school, the annual current expenditure to provide for yearly replacement cycle of printed instructional materials should be $21.00 (12:4).

When these formulae are considered in the light of figures showing current purchases per capita it can be seen that the ideal, stated above, has not been approached when the increased cost of materials is considered. The total cost buys fewer books than projected. What an administrator will want to spend for printed materials will be determined in large measure by the goals and financial ability of his community. The ideal figure has not been determined. The ideal formula has not yet been devised. Suffice it to say, many schools still suffer from a dearth of printed materials.

SELECTION PRACTICES AND PRINCIPLES

Perhaps the most critical phase of textbook services administration lies in the proper selection of textbooks by the local district. The administrator, of course, is concerned for textbook expenditures, the proper distribution of books and adequate care and maintenance of materials. His greater concern, however, is assurance that the books selected are in harmony with the educational psychology of the community and the school and that the books chosen will make the maximum contribution to the learning process. Careful attention to every step in the selection procedure, therefore, is imperative for the school administrator.

At the outset the administrator must consider the relationship between books chosen and community interests. As a prerequisite, the educational philosophy of the community must be determined. Usually the Board of Education is a good barometer of community aspirations and feelings. The Board and the superintendent can, if a judicious approach is made, use the development of a philosophy through community meetings as a good technique in school-community relations. The administrator must be aware that books issued to students will be taken home for study or recreational reading and that parents will have an opportunity to examine them. In order to avoid spontaneous and at times extraneous efforts at censorship, the wise administrator will provide means for parents to be made aware purposefully of materials that are being used. Projected plans for adoption can be included in the school newsletter or school paper. Samples of books under consideration should be placed in a library or other materials centers for scrutiny by interested laymen. Somewhere in the selection schedule it is advisable for the selction committee to make provision to hear interested groups. Care, in this instance, must be exercised in the establishment of the agenda and a list of those to be heard. Otherwise, the hearing will be turned into a forum for exhortations by radical pressure groups.

In Texas, books under consideration are placed on public display at twenty Regional Service Centers and in a public office in the hometown of each of the fifteen state committee members. Also, the public is given one day to appear before the state committee to protest any or all books. As a result of action taken during the 1983 legislative session, this procedure was expanded to allow proponents of a particular textbook to speak on its behalf as well as allowing for the testimony of those who may oppose its adoption. As an official governmental agency, the Board of Education must hear protests of books recommended by the local committee and discussions and votes by the Board of Education must take place in open session. The door must be kept open and with proper planning, good school - community relations will be the result.

The administrator must be sure that there is a clear educational philosophy to guide the selection process. As Miller so aptly says:

> The selection and use of textbooks requires the planning of what is to be taught and how it is to be taught. In order to provide appropriate organization of learning experiences for pupils in the school system, the selection of text books require staff personnel to come to an understanding as to the content of instruction and its overall organization (9:351).

He points out that this may be accomplished by accepting the plan set forth by a book or series of books adopted or by establishing curriculum guidelines and adopting books that fit the guidelines. School systems with adequate auxiliary staff may follow the latter idea with more ease than smaller systems which often let the book establish the course of instruction.

How long should books be used? A majority of schools use books from four to five years. Perhaps half of the schools change books more often. State adoptions range from one year to six years in several states. In open territory there is little uniformity as to how often selections are made. Economic considerations sometimes dictate longer use of a book than is desirable. On the other hand, new discoveries in the fields of science and mathematics cause textbooks in these areas to become obsolete more quickly and this compels districts as to make more frequent adoptions.

Changing textbooks frequently may create unfavorable attitudes toward the school unless reasons are fully explained to the public, especially in view of the rapidly increasing

SCHOOL BOARD MEETING
PUBLIC INVITED

cost of instructional materials.

In presenting the need for new selections to the lay public the need should always be predicataead upon the advantages to the child. This is particularly true in open territory situations. In state-adoption states there are few objecttions to frequent change. In several instances the reverse has been true when states under readoption provisions of contracts have extended terms of usage to as much as twelve years.

A cooperative study has suggested the following guidelines for developing an effective selection procedure:

1. Written Policy. The school system should have a written policy to govern evaluation and selection procedures. The policy should be made available to all administrators and classroom teachers, to the textbook publishers and their representatives, and to any members of the school community upon request.

2. Two-way Communication. The procedures should provide two-way communication between publisher's representatives and members of the adoption committee. Publishers should, upon invitation, present their materials to the committee as a whole.

3. Continuing Communication. The procedure should also provide the publisher' s representatives with the opportunity to confer with principals, department heads, supervisors and key teachers, not only during an adoption period but on acontinuing basis.

4. A Systematic Review. The procedure should include, subject to revision, annual plans for reviewing the textbook list and adoption schedule.

5. Composition of Committees. The procedure should establish the size of the various comittees and prescribe their membership.

6. Mailing Examination Copies. The procedures should provide publishers' representatives with the opportunity to send examination copies directly to the committee which evaluates books and to other advisors of the committee.

7. Mailing Advertising and Promotional Materials. Procedures should permit publishers' representatives to send circulars and other descriptive materials directly to the textbook committee and its advisors.

8. Sales Interviews. Procedures in cities adopting

multiple lists should permit publishers' representatives to interview not only textbook committees that select books for listing, but also the teachers in each school who are responsible for selecting titles from the approved list, if this conforms with the adoption policy in the school system.

9. Announcing Pending Adoptions. Procedures should describe school administration policy in announcing adoptions. The administrator should make clear whether the announcement is to be mailed to all textbook publishers and their representatives or to be available for the representatives' information at the administration office.

10. Providing Time for the Selection Committee. Procedures should provide selection committees and teachers with the time they need to evaluate and recommend titles for adoption. (11:16).

Policy Tips for Selecting Books

"Every School Board should adopt a policy concerning textbook selection and a set of guidelines for handling complaints about the books and library materials used in the schools. . .

The policy need not be elaborate, but should state that the board, by law, reserves the right to make final textbook selection decisions; it should designate who is to serve on a textbook selection committee (parents, students, administrative and curriculum staff, teachers); and it should give some indication of what a selection committee should consider. Such as:

Recommendations for textbooks should be based on student needs that have been identified by school staff in conjunction with the board's and community's philosophy of education;

Instructional materials should not be excluded because of the race, nationality, or the political or religious views of the writer;

Textbooks should contribute towards the continuity, integration, and articulation of the curriculum;

Instructional materials should avoid all stereotyping regarding sex roles."

". . . any school board policy should include the following sort of guide to provide for community participation in the textbook approval process:

The citizen textbook advisory committee (or any other interested citizens) will have the opportunity to review materials recommended by the textbook selection committee. . .

Before final approval and adoption, the board will hear public comments, and in the event of an objection to a textbook, complainants will be asked to state their reasons in writing (citing pages, passages, references; stating how much of the material was read, viewed, or heard; if all the material has not been evaluated, identifying what parts were scrutinized; making any recommendations concerning the material or topic; and offering suggestions about what materials should be used instead.)

Complaints will be reviewed by professional staff and the board; the decision by the board will be conveyed to the complainant." (7:22)

The Superintendent's Role

As the chief administrative officer, the superintendent should be the educational leader of his community and school. As such he is reponsible for the development of a sound educational philosophy for the instructional staff. With this philosophy as a basis, the superintendent is responsible for securing from the Board of Education a formal statement of policy for the selection of textbooks and their proper distribution and use.

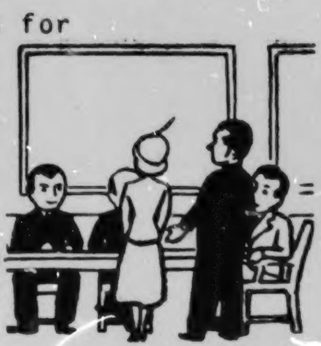
Once policies and philosophies are established and understood, the superintendent facilitates the selection process by establishing an organized procedure for reviewing books. It is mandatory in some states and customary in most for the superintendent to appoint the local committee (with school board confirmation). He is responsible for establishsisng procedures for study, for hearings and conferences. He should lead in the establishment of evaluative criteria and help the textbook committee define and sharpen its goals.

Concerning administrative factors, the superintendent and his associates must create positive selection conditions by providing a clear statement of what is expected of the selection committee. (1).

(1) Understand the implications of arguments for and against censorship of books

(2) Don't put off writing policy until book banners swamp or cause havoc with the board meeting agenda

(3) Develop, implement and strictly enforce written policy and administrative procedures to govern citizen complaints about instructional materials (16:44)



The superintendent has the responsibility for being a buffer between pressure and special interest groups and the selection committee. This task can be made easier by providing in the selection process opportunity for these groups to be heard in an orderly manner and by making copies of material under consideration available to them. The Texas procedure makes this practice mandatory at the State level. At the local level interested citizens are encouraged to examine books and make known their observations prior to local selection. The superintendent and his staff must be aware of the various pressure groups and special interest groups in the community and must develop with the selection committee sound reasons for adopting or rejecting the opinions of the groups.

Recent developments cited as having significant bearing on the selection process are; (1) the struggle of minority groups toward new status, (2) the increased political power of parents, students, and teachers, (3) individualized instruction, (4) the development of new teaching tools, (5) groups that want to return to fundamentals and basics in curriculum content, and (6) the change of the position of women in society. (1).

The Local Selection Committee

It has already been indicated that the responsibility for naming the local selection committee and charging it with its responsibilities lies with the superintendent of schools. Principals and supervisors will consult with the superintendent in the determination of appropriate and qualified personnel. The membership of the selection committee should be made public and should be available to the faculty and publishers' representatives according to established procedures. The practice of having secret committees is not a good one for they seldom remain completely secret and the ethical performers in the process are penalized.

Since classroom teachers are the ones who will be using the material selected, it is reasonable to say that a majority of the committee should represent the teaching staff. Two basic reasons support teacher participation; namely, (1) the teacher is more familiar with the pupil needs than any other person, and (2) particiption by the teacher provides opportunity for professional growth as the teacher's attention is focused on contemporary research and current educational innovations. The administrative staff should be represented to assure that the latest trends in educational thinking and instruction techniques are before the committee. Opinion is divided as to how strong the influence of the latter two groups should be.

Having a librarian or media center specialist on the committee is of particular value in open territory situations because of her knowledge of publishers and the new materials they are developing. She is very helpful in assisting in the analysis of mechanical features and construction specifications.

Balance is a key word in the formation of the local committee. Not only should the various staff levels be represented but there should be temperamental balance as well. There should be some leaders, some followers, and a "complainer" is a good prospect once in a while. The committee should not be filled with left-overs--those who have not had a committee assignment and need to be given a job. There should be the scholarly quiet one and the vocal and sometimes volatile questioner.

The size of the committee depends in some measure upon the number of subject matter areas for which books are to be adopted and the size of the school system. A central committee of seven to fifteen members is often used. Need for a broader representation can be satisfied by the establishment of sub-committees. Though the number of participating advisors may be large, the actual working committee should be kept small.

Time must be made available for the committee to take on and properly fulfill the professional task of book selection. The selection of books is an educational matter and should be handled deliberately and as free from deadlines as possible. The study of books should be thorough and preferably should be conducted over a year's time. Some school systems make the selection process a part of the school year routine and thus tend to accomplish the task within the context of the educational program. Some state-adoption states with their rigid legal requirements afford only two or three months for local study. This is particularly true in Texas and

Louisiana.

The second aspect of the time element lies in the arrangements made for the functioning of the committee member. This means that the administration must provide "release time" for the committee member and meetings and hearings with publishers must be scheduled during the school day and held at the school. The administrator should provide clerical help so that the committee member is free from such detail and can devote full time to study and evaluation of books.

THE PUBLISHER'S REPRESENTATIVE

While the publisher is sometimes suspect as far as motives are concerned, the nature of his market and the character of his customers compels him to be professional in interest, scrupulous in practices and knowledgeable in the field of education. The publishing team is charged with the responsibility of producing a book, series of books or package of educational materials which will fulfill a need in a major curriculum area. In order to carry out this job the publisher must be familiar with the problems and needs of education. Burke states that it is futile for publishers to look ahead ten years if textbook selection has become a ritual for both publishers and educators. He belives that publishers of textbooks for the future face some marked changes in the traditional textbook. (4:45). To survive and operate profitably, he must produce materials of instruction for a nationwide school market within the frame work of the free enterprise system. He serves both as the voice for his publishing house to education and as the ears for his publishing house as he listens for the new ideas that are developing in education.

The publisher's representative is sent as an advance agent who is charged with bringing the results of publisher's efforts to the attention of administrators, supervisors and classroom teachers. Time must be provided for the representative to meet with the selection committee if he is to adequately interpret the publications being offered. He is usually conversant with the latest educational trends and is able to relate his publications to these trends. He can assist the committee in establishing guidelines and criteria for making evaluations. He can provide analysis of his material

and of no small concern, he can be sure that members of the committee have adequate samples of books and supplementary materials. Sternig offers this word of caution; "Two often the representative is treated by schooolmen as though he were a peddler, or, at best an intruder on valuable time." He continues that it might be well to remember that "they know that their influence will be no greater than their ability to interpret the strong points of their product. . ." (14:114).

Put the representative to the test. Analyze his sales talk in the light of these questions: What did he say about the text under consideration? Can you remember the points he emphasized? Did he point out the underlying philosophy of education of the book presented or did he try to show that it fits the philosophy of the customer? Did he use the bandwagon approach, "Buy this book because every good school system is using it."? Did he rely heavily on author reputation or did he emphasize content?

Most publishing houses employ as representatives individuals who have good academic training, have achieved some success as teachers and have a continuing interest in educational growth. Administrators and the professional staff can benefit from the service these representatives have to offer.

LOCAL DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

Responsibilities and practices in the local administration of textbook services vary markedly between those districts operating in open territory and those operating under a system of state adoption and regulation.

In open territory, the establishment of accounting procedures, provisions for care, repair, disposal, replacement and the payment for loses are all borne by the local district. The exercise of these responsibilities follows the general business policies and practices of the district. The district business officials are called upon for assistance in establishing budget and purchasing practices and in many instances fiscal accountability. In smaller school systems these matters are customarily handled by the superintendent.

In state-adoption states, procedures followed by local districts are in large measure determined by statute and state administrative regulation. Title to ownership of books remains in the state, and local officials are held strictly accountable to the state textbook agency. Accounting procedures, regulation for care, disposal, return, and responsibility for requisitioning new materials, reporting the condition of local inventories and for returning out-of-adoption and worn books is customarily published and rather strictly adhered to. Textbook custodians are bonded to assure compliance with regulations.

An exemplary procedure for the operation of the office of the textbook custodian for a state adoption situation can be found in the Texas plan. Most of the principles and practices in the system are easiy adapable for open territory systems. The responsibility for the appointment of the local textbook custodian lies with the local board of education, usually upon recommendation of the superintendent. In Texas the custodian must post a bond equivalent to 15% of the value of books from the state textbook division, the receiving and storing of books in clean and secure facilities, and the establishment of distribution procedures for getting books to classrooms. Also, he is responsible for the enforcement of regulations governing the care of books, assessment of penalties for damage and losses, replacement and return of worn out or out-of-adoption books, the taking of inventories and accounting annually to the state for all books with which the district is charged. In smaller districts the appointment of an administrator to perform these duties is the usual procedure. In larger districts teachers or other employees are appointed part-time as building unit textbook custodians. In districts of 25,000 or more students, it is good practice to appoint a a full-time custodian or in any event to have a full-time textbook clerk. In most large systems, the director of special services or the business manager is appointed textbook custodian.

A close working relationship between the textbook custodian and other media personnel is valuable in any situation, but it is essential in those districts that purchase their own textbooks. Some services can be performed by the instructional materials center and the librarian in the matter of selection. These same departments can be of assistance in the care and repair of district owned books. These departments cannot be expected to do a complete rebinding job but minor repairs add early in the life of a book can add months to its usable life. Large city systems have set up book mending departments and have found the practice to be an economical one. This practice also saves the use-time lost and details of accounting when books must leave the local school book depository for repair.

ORGANIZATION WITHIN SCHOOL BUILDINGS

Primary responsibility for the textbook in an area school lies with the building principal. Written policies for principals and teachers should be published, outlining the procedures governing the handling of books. Many states designate the responsibilities and duties of principals and teachers for carrying out state regulations. The local district supplements these with local policy provisions and additional regulations. In most instances teachers and other school officials must make written reports to the director or custodian concerning the inventory, care and condition of books provided for their use. Some states provide that the monthly salary of any teacher or employee who fails to make such reports may be withheld until the report is received.

Much valuable teaching time can be consumed by the issuance and receiving of books at the beginning and closing of school. In-service workdays should be used for these purposes. In elementary schools, particularly, books can be issued and placed on each child's desk prior to his arrival on the first day of school. In high schools, individual subject area teachers are usually responsible for the issuance of books. Based on advanced registration figures, a supply of books can be placed in their respective rooms prior to the first meeting of classes.

Payment for damaged or lost books is a problem in states and local districts where free textbooks are provided. In most instances pupils are responsible for payment of loss or damage to books. Some school districts hold the teacher responsible for the enforcement of this policy to the extent of requiring the teacher to reimburse the district for any unpaid loss or damage. In general, school administrators report excellent cooperation from pupils and their parents in caring for books when the program stresses the furnishing of free textbooks. Students and parents should be led in the development of a feeling of pride in this stewardship.

EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOK SERVICES

In order to achieve and to maintain high textbook standards, the school administrator must provide a means for effective, continuous evaluation of the administration of textbook services. Concern should not be limited solely to the reviewing of texts throughout the school year. This concern should be extended to means of keeping abreast of new materials that become available.

The evaluation should include an assessment of storage, facilities, condition of books, accounting procedures, rules and regulations and the performance of individuals under these regulations. An instrument for the evaluation of textbook services is included in INSTRUMENTS FOR THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOL SPECIAL SERVICES. (8). Another instrument for the selection of textbooks follows. Some adaptations may be desirable as different subject matter areas are considered. Some items may have more meaning at one instructional level than at others. The selection committee should determine the relative applicability of items before beginning the tabulation of scores.

SUMMARY

The wise administrator will assure good selection practices through educational leadership, through the establishment of systematic procedures and through providing a professional climate within which his administrative professsional staff can work in the selection of books.

Good textbook administration requires the establishment of procedures and rules and regulations governing the care of and accounting for textbooks. Recognition of the contribution that can be made by the publisher and his representative is essential to good textbook administration.

The cooperation and understanding of parents and the general public concerned with educational needs can be won by the efforts of the administrator who advises them about the textbook program. This can be accomplished through the news media, school newsletters, public meetings and personal conferences.

The evaluation of the textbook program should be a continuing process involving the professional staff and based on high standards established by the superintendent.

TEXTBOOK EVALUATION SHEET
(for selection)

Title of Publication ____________________

Publisher ____________________

Grade of intended use ____________________

Name of evaluator ____________________

(Score values: 5-Superior, 4-Excellent, 3-Good, 2-Fair, 1-Poor. Circle only one figure for each item.)

I. SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT

A. The book has sufficient scope relative to curriculum guidelines. 5 4 3 2 1

B. Subject matter topics are presented in proper proportion to significance. 5 4 3 2 1

C. The book is free of errors in fact. 5 4 3 2 1

D. The content is free of editorial bias. 5 4 3 2 1

E. Material is presented in a lively and interesting manner. 5 4 3 2 1

F. Material is presented in clear and concise language. 5 4 3 2 1

G. Content is related to the environment and general interest of the student. 5 4 3 2 1

H. Content arrangement and presentation contributes to development of inquiry on the part of the student. 5 4 3 2 1

I. Content reflects the pluralistic nature of our society. 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ________

II. ORGANIZATION

A. Material is presented in a sequential manner 5 4 3 2 1

B. Material is presented in coherent units 5 4 3 2 1

C. The material as presented is adaptable to varying methods of teaching (project method, group-study, self-study individualized instruction). 5 4 3 2 1

D. The organization makes provision for teaching students with individual differences. 5 4 3 2 1

E. Material has a unifying theme or philosophy. 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ________

III. AUTHORSHIP

A. Authors possess academic scholarship in this field of study. 5 4 3 2 1

B. Authors have taught in this subject content area. 5 4 3 2 1

C. Authors have taught this material at the academic level for which this evaluation is being made. 5 4 3 2 1

D. Authors have contributed other writings in books, journals, etc. in this academic area. 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ________

IV. COPYRIGHT

A. The book has a current copyright date. 5 4 3 2 1

B. The material is new or represents significant up-dating revision. 5 4 3 2 1

Selection score ________

V. PHYSICAL FORMAT

A. The book is generally attractive. 5 4 3 2 1

B. The binding is substantial and meets specifications. 5 4 3 2 1

C. The paper is of good quality. 5 4 3 2 1

D. Print (size of type and spacing of words and lines) is suitable to the level of visual development of students for whom intended. 5 4 3 2 1

E. Maps, diagrams and other illustrations are clear and contribute to an understanding of text material. 5 4 3 2 1

F. Illustrations reflect the pluralism of our society. 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ________

VI. INSTRUCTION AIDS

A. Adequate audio and/or visual aids accompany the book. 5 4 3 2 1

B. The book is acompanied by an activity book that challenges students and reinforces concepts presented in the text 5 4 3 2 1

C. Activities suggested at chapter and unit conclusions provide for individual differences in students. 5 4 3 2 1

D. Activities at chapter and unit conclusions challenge students to do further independent research. 5 4 3 2 1

E. Activities at chapter and unit conclusions contribute to comprehension of text material. 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ________

VII. AIDS TO LOCATING INFORMATION AND UNDERSTANDING THE TEXT

A. The arrangement of material contributes to clarification of scope and aims of units and selections. 5 4 3 2 1

B. Appendices furnish significant supplementary material. 5 4 3 2 1

C. An adequate, up-to-date bibliography is presented. 5 4 3 2 1

D. There is an accurate and complete index. 5 4 3 2 1

E. There is a glossary that presents

terms in an understandable manner. 5 4 3 2 1

F. There is a current listing of enrichment reference materials. 5 4 3 2 1

G. The reading and study level of the book is commensurate with the normal student's ability for which its use is intended 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ______

VIII. THE TEACHER EDITION

A. The teacher's edition is an annotated book. 5 4 3 2 1

B. The teacher's edition offers enrichment material for presentation at the teacher's option. 5 4 3 2 1

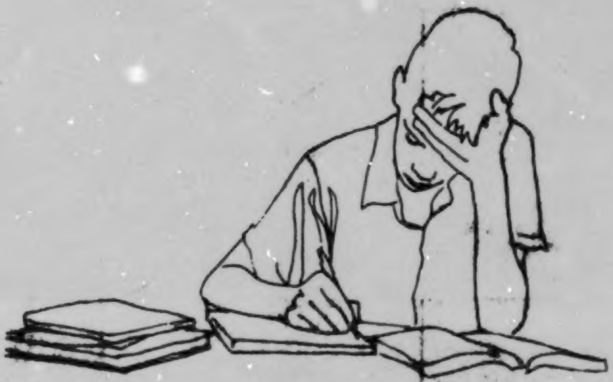
C. The teacher's edition aids the teacher in developing objectives and concepts significant to the content. 5 4 3 2 1

D. The teacher's edition contains an answer key to tests and activity exercises contained in the pupil edition. 5 4 3 2 1

E. The teacher's edition offers alternative suggestions for making the text more adaptable and applicable to the needs of the students. 5 4 3 2 1

Section Score ______

TOTAL SCORE ______________________________



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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for TEXTBOOK SERVICES

1. Describe the differences in the practices of adoption, financing, and purchasing of textbooks in the various states. What practical differences do these different practices make for the teachers and administrators in the schools of these states?

2. Describe the principles and practices that should be used by a school or school district in selecting textbooks. What should the administrator's role be in the selection process?

3. Who has the ultimate responsibility for the adoption of textbooks to be used in a school district? Describe the procedure beginning with the system textbook committee.

4. Describe the pros and cons of state or school supplied textbooks and the requirement that each student must purchase his own books.

5. Be prepared to participate on either side of a class debate regarding the relative desirability of state and local district adoption patterns.

6. Identify five or more major concepts about textbook services.

Library Services

CHAPTER XI

LIBRARY SERVICES

Today's school library is a RESOURCE CENTER of teaching-learning materials and facilities. This is a radical change from the dusty book collections of yesteryear. The focus now is on SERVICE. Today's library, in addition to books magazines and newspapers, contains maps, globes, television, computer terminals, conference rooms, paintings, realia, microfiche, microfilm and dial-access retrieval materials. The modern library is becoming known more correctly as the school media program which includes instructional services furnished to students and teachers by a media center and its staff. Media, then, refers to both printed and audiovisual forms of communication and their accompanying technology.

To properly use the media available today, the librarian becomes a media specialist who aids teachers and students with reading programs, speech, sight, and hearing problems, reference areas for all subjects and the use and care of audiovisual materials. The librarian has changed from a housekeeper and clerk into an efficient specialist in dissemination of useful information, materials and systems for learning. This implies, then, that there is a library staff with divisions of labor commensurate with size and the extent of program diversity.

When the first specially trained full-time school librarian was appointed in 1900, a new concept of library service was born. It replaced the dusty storaage and checkout system of the past with a bright new outlook in reference and reading services. This was not an overnight conversion, however, and it took almost a quarter of a century to change the library image from one of hushed reverence for literary classics to one of usefulness through easily attainable materials for all school disciplines.

A new attitude is found in the modern library. It is no longer so important to know exactly where every book is and in what condition it remains. The more important concern now is to have the books and material in use. A book is not judged by how nice it looks, but how used it looks.

The library should be a source of information about new materials which must be easily and quickly accessible, a place where students and teachers may keep themselves informed about recent developments and trends in education. The librarian channels information to teachers about students' problems and progress. The librarian organizes and conducts sessions to instruct students in the use of resources in the library. The librarian assists teachers in the analysis of instructional needs and the design of learning activities. Also, she conducts regular workshops to acquaint teachers with the latest materials and learning techniques.

GROWTH OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

In the twentieth century, school libraries began to receive accelerated attention. The School Libraries Section of the American Library Association was formed in 1914.

School libraries have experienced their greatest growth since 1930. The School and Children's Library Division was established at the American Library Association Headquarters in 1936. In 1938, the Library Service Division was established. A specialist on school libraries was made a member of the staff and charged with the responsibility to develop school library services. By 1942, surveys showed some 90 percent of the nation's public school children had some form of library service.

High school libraries have grown rapidly since the turn of the century. Central libraries in elementary schools have grown more slowly, but are steadily increasing in number. One indication of the growth of libraries and library services is the increase in number of employed trained librarians. The first one was employed in 1900. By 1940-41 the number of full-time librarians increased to 5,238 and there were 7,529 part-time librarians employed in public schools. The total number of full-time and part-time librarians employed by public schools in 1966 reached 28,965 -- more than doubling the total employed in 1940-41. Another 4,700 librarians were employed in non-public elementary and secondary schools during 1966, bringing the number of school librarians for that period to over 30,000. By 1970, the estimated number of elementary and secondary school librarians rose to 52,000, and the total number of librarians in the United States reached 114,000.

These numbers have increased over ten percent in this decade due to available funds from various federal programs, such as ESEA Title I, II, and III, (used in part for library aides), and ESAA (for learning centers, primarily earmarked for disadvantaged students).

THE LIBRARY TODAY

Today's school library is a source of learning experiences for the entire school. It is administered by a specialist who provides teachers and students with resources needed to enrich and support curriculum content and to initiate and extend learning beyond these areas. The library provides continuous access to appropriate materials, a stimulating environment for appreciation of literature and learning, and a laboratory for study and research.

The ultimate goal of the library program is to place the right book or materials in the hands of the right person at the right time. The American Association of School Librarians drew up a six-point "School Library Bill of Rights" supporting this basic aim:

1. To provide materials which will enrich and support the curriculum, taking into consideration the varied interests, abilities, and maturity levels of the pupils served

2. To provide materials that will stimulate growth in factual knowledge, literary appreciation, aesthetic values, and in ethical standards

3. To provide a background of information which will enable pupils to make intellectual judgments in their daily lives

4. To provide materials on opposisng sides of controversial issues so that young citizens may develop the practice of critical reading and thinking, under guidance

5. To provide materials representative of the many religious, ethnic, and cultural groups and to relate their contributions to America's heritage

6. To place principle above personal opinion and reason above prejudice in the selection of materials of the highest quality so that a comprehensive collection appropriate for users of the library may be assured (2:20)

Special Aspects of Library Service

Certain aspects of the library or media program need to be viewed in regard to the modern era of change. Vast increases in knowledge, the population's growth and mobility and the technological changes of communication demand innovations in instructional design and teaching techniques. Because of these changes, there is a current trend to call the "library" a "resource center".

A child's inherent sense of curiosity and inquiry can be used in a variety of ways to meet such diversities. The resource center is now designed to meet the demands of an educational program which emphasizes the creative teacher and the child who strives toward self-direction and independent thinking. Unchanged, however, is the regard with which a democratic society considers its children -- all are valuable, and each child is unique in his needs and capabilities.

To meet the changing needs of society, the school library must take on flexibility by providing:

1. A suitable place for book and periodical storage and media resource usage, easily available to those who need them.

2. A place where books and periodicals may be read and studied under quiet and comfortable conditions.

3. Means and convenience for lending books, periodicals, media equipment, realia, art prints, accounting for circulation.

4. Means for display or promotion of materials in order to attract the interest of students and to stimulate the use of the materials.

5. Means by which materials and information sought by pupils and teachers can be readily found.

6. Facilities for library administrative work, conferences and committee work, and such routine activites as classification and repair. (Many school systems have a centralized processing center which prepares materials for use in all district libraries).

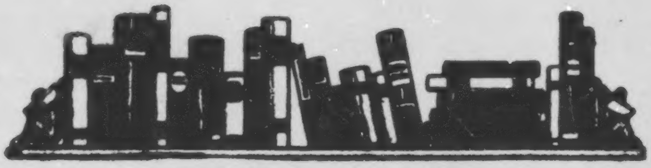
7. Facilities which permit class and individual instruction in library use techniques.

In some communities it is not practical to have both a public and a school library, so the school library is used for both purposes. This may be jointly supported by the board of education and a library board which operates on a special tax levied by the local taxing agency. These libraries must include adult reading materials and must extend their operation beyond the school hours. This system very often is plagued by the determination of the fair division of financing between the school and the community. Most school administrators discourage this type of arrangement because of the dual responsibilities. Since there are advantages to this cooperation, every effort should be made to overcome the obstacles to success.

Classroom Collections

Changeable classroom collections are valuable tools and are usually available from the centralized library. They may be rotated at appropriate times by students, the teacher and the librarian. The central library can supply a considerable reservoir plus the service to help maintain the classroom collection.

Permanent classroom collections are usually found in schools with no central library. They should not be considered a substitute for the central library.



The disadvantages of a permanent classroom collection are obvious. There will be needless duplication of books and labor. A limited number of books will be available for each class, and when students have read the most attractive books, they may lose interest because of a lack of variety. It is a problem to maintain enough material to keep the accelerated student supplied at all times and concurrently provide for the slow and special interest readers.

The Library and Resource Center Staff

The various state accreditating agencies have set certain standards in order to provide the necessary staff to achieve minimum effectiveness in the school library. As an example, Texas has adopted the following ratio of librarians to scholastic enrollment:

1. An Enrollment of 200 or Fewer Pupils:

Enrollment	Minimum Personnel Needed
100-200 (or major fraction of)	1 classroom teacher for 2 or preferably 3 periods each day, free from other duties; or 1 multi-school librarian for 2 or 3 days each week.
99 or fewer	1 classroom teacher with at least 1 full period each day free from all other duties

2. Enrollment of More than 200 Pupils:

Enrollment	Minimum No. Librarians	Number of Clerical Assistants
200-499	1	1 (if the librarian has responsibility for audio-visual resources)
500-999	2	1 (or 2 if librarians have responsibility for audio-visual resources)
1,000-1,999	3	2 (or 3 if librarians have responsibility for audio-visual resources)
2,000 or more	3 for the first 2000 pupils and 1 for each additional 1000 pupils	3 (or 4 if librarians have responsibility for audio-visual resources and 1 for each additional 1000 pupils beyond 2000 or two if librarians have responsibility for audio-visual resources. (7:34)

In many instances a school is too small or lacks finances for a full-time librarian. The one librarian may serve two or more schools in the same district. By special arrangement small school districts may have a cooperating unit for library services.

PERSONNEL PREPARATION AND CERTIFICATION

Standards for school librarians are specified by state departments of education. A member of the professional staff who has charge of the school library program in most states must hold a librarian's certificate issued by the state

agency or department of education. The usual requirements for a staff member serving as librarian for more than 50 percent of the school day is at least 12 semester hours in library science from a college or university with an approved program of preperation. A staff member serving less than 50 percent of the day must usually have at least six semester hours of library science in an approved program. Over 30 states and the District of Columbia have similar requirements for certified librarians. (6:21) A degree in library science is the preferred requirement by most school systems.

The American Library Association has suggested that with the advent of the media program, problems concerning the dichotomy of certification --one for school librarians and one for audiovisual specialists--must be resolved. They suggest that solving these existing problems will help speed the development of unified media centers, help correct a serious manpower problem, and promote recruitment. (1:14-15)

In some states, persons may be assigned as school librarians without having completed an approved certification program if the school superintendent receives approval from the state agency. This is known as emergency measures. Generally, certain qualifications still must be enforced. Usually the person assigned must hold a bachelor's degree and a permanent teaching certificate and must have had at least a year's teaching experience. In addition, at leats six semester hours of library science toward the librarian's certificate must have been completed. Also, evidence must be shown that the person assigned is able to remove the deficiencies in this area of specilization within a reasonable period.

Campus Learning Resources Director

The learning resources program is administered by a professional who knows and understands the curriculum and who, because of a broad knowledge of learning resources, can assist students and teachers in the selection and use of media. The campus learning resources director participates actively in curriculum planning and development and is a catalyst for learning in the LRC and in the classroom. Working with pupils and teachers is recognized as a major responsibility. This is accomplished most effectively in an orderly and well organized environment.

The campus learning resources director is competent in:

- Curriculum development, teaching techniques, instructional design, and learning theory.
- Program management and materials organization.
- Leadership and administrative ability.
- Reading, viewing, and listening guidance.
- Evaluation, selection, acquisition, processing and minor maintenance of materials and equipment.
- Implementation of a basic resources program.
- Retrieval of information for students and teachers. (9:19)

Student and Teacher Aides

The importance of the supporting staff lies in the specific skills and abilities which staff members bring to the library program and in the assistance they bring the professional librarian in release time to carry on a comprehensive library program. Also, there is an expanded program to give experience to student aides. While the training program for capable students builds confidence and useful skills, it also provides a useful service to the library and school.

Student aides, especially in the junior and senior high school programs, can perform many tasks such as sending notices, shelving books and checking library cards. Also they may perform functions associated with the appearance and upkeep of the center. However, student assistants are not equivalent to paid media aides. Student work in the library or media center should be considered a temporary library program or a part of the school's instructional program.

Media Technicians

Media technicians are staff members with specialized training and preparation in skills needed in the program's operations. The number and kinds of technicians used may depend on school size, but good service to students and teachers is the determining factor in the use of technicians. Included among the specialties of these personnel are:

1. Graphics Technicians: producing transparencies, making posters and charts, arranging display materials, making slides and associated graphic work.

2. Photographic Technicians: taking and developing pictures for the instructional program, for publicity and promotion; maintaining photographic equipment and supplies; doing camera work involved in making films and producing television programs.

3. Equipment and Simple Maintenance Technicians: installing and maintaining equipment for television, recording, radio, and programmed instruction equipment. (1:15-16)

Media Aides

Media aides are paid school employees who are responsible for reading shelves, shelving and filing materials, inspection and repair of films, mounting pictures, and keeping the appearance of the center in good order.

The occasional volunteer service rendered by parents in this capacity has important public relations value, but is not a substitute for trained and salaried workers. Provisions should be made for sufficient numbers of paid staff members to handle all secretarial, clerical, and maintenance work of the library. Aides should be carefully supervised and directed by a professional school librarian.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The Librarian-Principal Team

In the same manner that a good teacher is essential in the classroom, a competent librarian is the success key to whether or not the library is an integrated center of learning. This person must project enthusiasm and possess expertise in broad knowledge and sincere interest in the total school program. The librarian is an administrator whose influence reaches each aspect of organization and the teaching-learning situation. He or she must be one of the most universally popular professionals on the staff. This implication applies to students, parrents, teachers, secretaries, aides -- and yes, the principal and his staff. Also, the librarian's favorable image must project into and coordinate with the community setting.

How is this accomplished? Some attributes are learned through professional study and experience. An essential asset is the person's personality in the broadest sense and the greatest detail -- self-confidence, interest in the success of others, positive thinking, crisis management, understanding of individualized instruction, ability to inspire the slow and the fast, empathy at all levels, and a true love for research and appropriate literature.

Who can be the greatest motivator of a librarian or the stumbling block? The principal, of course. His is a unique position of support, encouragement, vision, and leadership. As in other aspects of the school program, he can make it, break it, or play a laissez faire role.

The library of any given school does not lack honor - it often lacks use. The teachers regard the library very highly-They simply do not use it enough. The administrator of a school bears a great responsibility. The principal who is enthusiastic about the library, who appreciates the librarian both philosophically and practically, who makes library use an expected concomitant to instruction and a part of teacher evaluation is vital to effective library service. (3:63)

In its "Standards of School Library Programs," the American Library Association lists the following majors responsiblities a good principal should assume so that library services may function in an acceptable manner. The principal:

1. Endorses a library program that broadens and improves the quality of education for all children and young people; interprets this program and its services to the superintendent of schools, teachers, parents, and others; and enlists their aid in its fulfillment.

2. Works with the head school librarian in designing the library program best suited to the needs of the school and all of its pupils, and makes it possible for the librarian to carry forward a library program that follows best policies and practices.

3. Encourages wide and effective use of library resources on the part of all students and teachers.

4. Plans with teachers anad librarians for a systematic and integrated program of library instruction for all students.

5. Puts into operation any policies for school libraries established at the school system level.

6. Is familiar with school library standards and uses them as guides in evaluating the school library program and in providing staff, quarters, funds, and materials collections.

7. Appoints the head librarian to the faculty council or advisory committee and includes librarians on general curriculum committees and other appropriate committees.

8. Has administrative authority over the school library budget, but plans the budget with the head school librarian and gives him/her authority for its expenditures.

9. Endorses a policy for the selection and purchase of all printed and audio-visual materials, and recognizes the competencies of the school library staff in this area.

10. Helps keep the professional library staff informed about major educational developments in general and about changing teaching procedures and new or expanded curricula within the school.

11. Looks to the head librarian for creative and imaginative leadership, and makes certain that the lines of responsibility and authority from the school administrator to the head librarian are clearly established.

Learning Resource Center -- The Principal's Role

In order for the learning resource center to function at best effectiveness, the principal is one of the most essential administrators of the LRC program. It is through him that the LRC is set up as an integral part of the school, and through him that the school can take advantage of the services of the LRC. He is the guide, the counselor, and the coordinator of the LRC program in the school, fitting the LRC into a place within the curriculum in proportion to the total program.

It is the principal who realizes that each part of the program must have trained and interested personnel with time and stamina to plan and fulfill a part of the functioning of the school. He is the link between school and administration. The LR specialist, through the principal, can turn to the superintendent or any of the administrative divisions for assistance. The principal can bring too the LR specialist the professional advice and assistance of the LR Director.

The principal is the official agent for handling the business affairs of the LRC. To him are sent the reports of the amount of the LRC budget and the expenditures against it. It is he who approves the orders and requests for LRC materials, after consultation with the LR specialist and the LRC Director. Specifically, the principall does the following things:

1. Approves and signs requisition as purchasing agent for all items such as book orders, magazine orders, and bindery orders

2. Approves and signs requests and letters of justification to the superintendent for necessary furniture, equippment, and other items of capital outlay for the LRC

3. Approves and signs receiving sheets for anything received on purchase orders, after conferring with LR specialist about receipt of materials and accuracy of invoices

4. Approves and signs requisition on storeroom for LRC supplies

5. Maintains annual records of deposits and expenditures in LRC activity fund of money paid for fines, damages and lost books

6. Makes any official requests concerning routine or unusual LRC affairs

7. Accepts responsibility for supporting and promoting a progressive LRC program in his building

8. Establishes rules and procedures, in cooperation with the LRC specialist, for the most effective use of the LRC relation to the total school program

Accreditation

In order for a school to be approved for accreditation most states require a planned instructional program in operation that leads to discovering and meeting the needs of each pupil. The school system must have a program for library and instructional materials for all pupils in all grades in keeping with the needs of each campus unit. The program should include:

1. Personnel with free time from other duties to plan the program and provide services

2. Physical facilities and materials, acceptable in quality and quantity, to support the instructional program

3. An annual budget, ample to operate the program

4. A plan for effective use of media program materials by pupils and teachers at all times during the school day

5. An adequate initial book collection

Recommended minimum equipment consists of the following:

1. Overhead projector, one per ten teaching situation
2. Opaque projector, one per school
3. Filmstrip projector, one per five teaching situations
4. Film (16mm) projector, one per twenty teaching stations
5. Slide transparency projector, two per school
6. Tape recorder-player, one per ten teaching station
7. AM/FM radio, one per building
8. Projection stands and screens, sufficient quantity for equipment
9. TV receivers, equipped for Educational Television and cable reception
10. Complete Video-Tape equipment.

Requirements for Learning Resources Program

(a) Staffing

(1) All districts provide professional learning resource services

(2) Districts with 1000 or fewer ADA may enter into cooperative agreements to provide professional services based on shared personnel units.

(3) Districts with over 1000 ADA provide on a district-wide basis at least one certificated learning resources specialist (librarian) within the following pattern of both professional and paraprofessional personnel units:

ADA	P.U.'S
1001-2000	2.0
2001-3000	3.0
3000 +	3.0 + 1.0 per thousand or major fraction thereof above 3000

(b) Resources

(1) A collection of materials in a variety of formats is centrally organized and available to students and teachers at the campus unit level. Materials are chosen using standard selection tools and/or personal examination. The collection is balanced and relevant to the curriculum.

(2) Minimum acceptable standards are:

(a) Books: 7 books per student.

(b) Audiovisual items: 2 audiovisual items per student. Audiovisual materials include filmstrips, slides, transparencies, study prints, pictures, sound recordings, maps, globes, kits, microforms, games and single concept films.

(c) Equipment: appropriate equipment to use the selected materials is provided.

(3) A proration of materials available from Regional Education Serice Centers may be counted as part of the minimum number of items required.

(c) Learning Resources Program Development

The learning resources program develops and implements the following five services;

(1) instruction of students in the use of library materials

(2) student and teacher access to materials and services to facilitate learning

(3) assistance to teachers and student in making materials

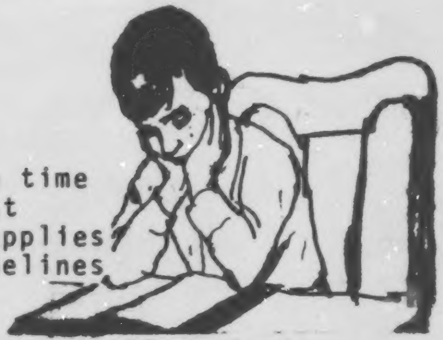
(4) provision of reference and bibliographic services; and

(5) concultative assistance and inservice education to teachers

(d) Implementation Requirements

The district shall fully implement the learning resources program requirements by september 1, 1985. (8:137-139)

FACILITIES AND MATERIALS



In setting up a new library in the school, a librarian should be hired approximately one year in advance of the time that the library is expected to open. At least the minimum amount of books and supplies as indicated by state standards and guidelines must be provided.

For an average size school, the library will include a reading room, office space, work space, and shelving area for books and materials. Conference room, viewing rooms and listening booths also are found in many schools, particularly at the secondary level.

The reading room should seat about 10 percent of the school enrollment comfortably. A variety of table seating capacities is advisable. Six or eight per table is an acceptable standard. Most of the available wall space in the reading room should be utilized by bookshelving. Adequate lighting and proper acoustical design are essential. Lounge-type seating is especially useful for reading of periodicals.

The library office should be convenient to the reading room and large enough to accomodate a desk, desk-chair, extra chair, table, filing cabinet, and a small amount of book shelving. A glass area between the office and the reading room is a convenience.

A workroom should be located adjacent to the reading room. It should have a sink with hot and cold water, a work counter, table and chairs, typewriter and desk, bookshelving, electrical outlets, and storage cabinets.

Depending upon te amount of bookshelving available in the reading room, a stack room may be necessary for additional book storage, but is generally not recommended for school libraries.

Book Collections

A joint committee of the American Association of School Librarians and the National Education Association have proposed the following standards for schools having at least

250 students.

Books	6,000-10,000 titles or 20 per student
Magazines	
Elementary School	40-50 titles
Junior High School	100-125 titles
Secondary School	125-175 titles
Newspapers	
Elementary School	3-6 titles
Secondary School	6-10 titles
Filmstrips	500-1,000 titles or three prints per student
Sixteen mm Films	Access to minimum of 3,000 titles supplemented by duplicates and rentals
Tape and Disc Recordings	1,000-2,000 titles or six per student
Slides	2,000
Art Prints	1,000 with duplicates as needed
Pictures and Study Prints	Vertical file collection, access to fifteen sets per teaching station
Transparencies	2,000 plus selection of subject matter masters
Globe and Maps	Each classroom should be equipped with additional equipment available from media center as needed.

Supplementary Materials

Some states suggest supplementary materials such as the following list:

1. Supplementary textbooks in or out of adoption

2. Student dictionaries

3. Encyclopedia, including sets for lending

4. Paperback books, especially duplicates, or ten or more copies of same titles

5. Skill-building materials

6. Professional Collection for teachers to include: Magazines (40-50 professional titles)

7. Curriculum guides

8. Teacher's manuals

9. Government documents (8:8-9)

The Selection of Library Materials

The selection of books and other materials for the library should be a joint enterprise of teachers, librarians, and principals, with the librarians service as chief expediter and liaison person. The librarian should enlist the cooperation of faculty members to make careful selection of books to be used with their classes. Also, students should be encouraged to assist by submitting their choices and by working on committees. The librarian should arrange for commercial book exhibits to assist the joint selection committee.

Lists are available to serve as standards for selection of books for school libraries. Two such lists are Standard Catalog for High School Libraries (New York, H.W. Wilson, Co.) and A Basic Collection for High Schools (prepared by a joint committee for the National Education Association and the American Library Association). There are also "Standard Catalogs" for elementary and junior high schools, and periodicals such as "Horn Book," "Library Journal" and "Booklist" also are useful in making selections. The American Library Association's Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades is a reference which can be utilized by classroom teachers and librarians to identify books which have value as teaching materials. These lists are helpful in establishing a basic collection, but they should not be used exclusively. These are brought up to date periodically, but they can never stay current very long due to constant publication of new and valuable books.

In selecting books, the type of binding should be considered. Library binding, which is reinforced, generally provides up to twice the length of life as does the usual trade binding. However, publishers have improved their bindings in recent years so that trade bindings are now highly competitive with library bindings. Paperback books

also have a place in school libraries and permabound books are a good buy. They are especially valuable for providing low cost reading which can be replaced economically, for providing quickly out-dated books such as some science materials, and for providing large numbers of the same titles which are needed for certain courses. In recent years, a definite trend has developed toward the specialized use of paperback books.

Some schools employ a bookstore within the school to provide students with a ready supply of books. Paperback books lend themselves to this type of situation. The bookstore may be operated through the library, snack bar, or office. For such a program to be successful, it must be well organized and managed. School officials, teachers and librarians report that unrequired reading has been enhanced by the convenient availability of economical purchases of books. These books also are valuable for use by other members of the family.

Evaluation of Materials

Materials that should be in a school library can be described to some extent. Does each title meet the following criteria?

1. Subject matter is appropriate, accurate, recent, objectively presented and fully covered.
2. Vocabulary and content are readable, appropriate for the users and appropriate for the subject matter.
3. Format of printed materials includes good binding, strong paper, wide margins, large-clear print and good spacing between lines.
4. Format of audiovisual materials is durable, appropriate for the content, easy to repair, easy to use and attractive.
5. Presentation develops logically and interestingly.
6. Illustrations are clear and attractive.
7. Tone has fidelity and clarity.
8. Author is qualified to produce materials on the subject.
9. Accompanying materials are provided when needed and relevant to the material.

REVIEWS

Financing the School Library

It is essential for the local school board to include the library in its annual budget. The entire library services budget should be handled by the superivisor or director of libraries for the school district who would allocate these funds to the individual schools according to enrollment figures or recognized needs. In smaller school systems, coordination is accomplished by the superintendent or someone designated by him. Recent federal funding programs have made it mandatory for the library budget to be maintained at a level of quality and quantity.

Valuable contributions are often made by local organizations such as the Parent-Teacher Association, reading clubs, and civic clubs. These may be in the form of money for purchases, or the donation of books. In the latter case, care must be taken by the librarian or a committee to select books suitable for the school and the level of instruction. The school should stipulate, in receiving monetary gifts, that purchase will be made according to school policies and needs.

As a result of recent federal legislation, school libraries have been given substantial assistance. National Education Act (Title III) funds have been used to enrich school libraries by providing matching funds for subject areas. Title II of the Elementary-Secondary Education Act Program has been used extensively for the purchase of library materials.

Some guidelines in preparing the annual budget for the school library program have been suggested by state and national organizations. These figures are to be aplied to a situation in which the basic collection and library facilities are already established. The total expenditure indicated to maintain an up-to-date collection has been placed at not less than six percent of the national average per student. The amount necessary for magazines and newspaperss can be determined readily from recommended titles. Audio-visual materials and equipment should amount to about four to six dollars per student per year. Supplies can be expected to account for five to ten percent of the library budget. It is recommended that ten to fifteen percent of the budget be allocated for the rebinding of books. To maintain an adequate professional collection, the budget should include from two to ten dollar figures must be given to the rapid rise in costs in an inflationary setting.

The benefits of the library should be extended to include the information needs of teachers. If the size of the school warrants it, a seperate room should be set aside for this purpose.

Guidelines for An Effective Library For Teachers

1. It is a collection of books and materials which may be housed in one or several places.

2. It is a flexible service, not a location, or a room, or building.

3. It will be most effective if it can be planned and conducted with the expert professional assistance of trained school media specialists.

4. It includes books, periodicals, pamphlets, films, filmstrips, cassetts, records, slides, and other media.

5. It includes books about history, economics, mathematics, music, anthropology, and other such subject areas, as well as about methodology, the learning problems of disadvantaged children, curriculum planning, and current issues.

6. It includes media for the specialist in a field as well as for the teacher with only a general background and interest in the same field.

7. It is organized and operated to stimulate and encourage innovation and change in curriculum and teaching.

8. It is organized at two levels: the individual school building and the school district.

Beginning the Teacher's Library

1. Collect all recent examination copies of textbooks ordered by committees involved in changing current textbooks. Most schools allow a change every five years. New teachers and student teachers, particularly, find these supplementary texts valuable.

2. Collect and buy as many inexpensive but carefully selected pamphlets as possible.

3. Order as many books, periodicals, and nonprint materials as the budget will allow.

4. Collect all professional educational titles, both hard-bound and paperback, in the school library and transfer them to the teacher's library.

5. Ask local organizations and civic groups to furnish appropriate materials.

6. Use the faculty member as one of the best sources. Administrators often bring valuable additions to the collection back from conferences. If teachers and administrators are made aware of the need, they will contribute worthwhile bibliographies, resource units, outlines, and other materials which they have used successfully.

7. Process through the library all the new materials which individual teachers and department heads are permitted to buy. Then every teacher will know what new materials are available and where they may be found. (4).

COOPERATION WITH PUBLIC LIBRARIES

School libraries must help teachers and students understand the resources available in the public library. The scope of materials provided in public libraries usually exceeds that of the school library. Steps should be taken to acquaint the students and teachers with the location of the public library, its facilities, and the means and procedures for its use. Cooperation between school personnel and public libraries is needed for exchange of information and coordination of programs. Also this is important in building an attitude for the use of the public library after graduation.

Public libraries can supplement and aid school libraries in several ways. They can provide librarians for visits and consulatations. They can provide information in the form of bulletins to schools about children's departments, new books, special occasions, and other worthwhile events. They can be available for planning and conducting summer programs for students, as well as for more home circulation of books throughout the year. Many public libraries can offer the use of their services through bookmobiles.

Public libraries can help keep the classroom library supplied with books. In many communities, teachers may check out as many as two titles per student for use in the classroom for extended periods of time.

SUMMER PROGRAMS

An increasingly popular plan for school libraries is a summer program whereby the school library is open during certain hours or on certain days for student use. Many schools maintain a library schedule to provide for summer school classes. Arrangements for the cost of the summer library program may be shared by the school, community, and civic groups. The school library programs can be very valuable to students, particularly when no public library is available.

PUBLIC RELATIONS IMPLICATIONS

The place of the school library in the total educational picture has often been overlooked or misinterpreted by the general public. An active school library in a modern school too often is an unknown entity. This situation can be partially alleviated by an aggressive public relations program.

Contact with nearly every student in school makes the librarian a valuable public relations agent. The use of public librarians should serve as a consultant to groups outside the school. The librarian can give speeches on library facilities to school organizations, service clubs and Parent-Teacher Associations. The librarian's appearance at communitiy meetings and book reviews, either as a participant or observer, will stimulate interest in the program of the public and school library.

The summer program of the school library usually generates community interest and becomes a strong public relations factor. Other facets of the school library may be viewed as an aid to good public relations. Some examples are: cooperation with public libraries, sale of used paperback books through the library, displays, involvement of students as library aides, using the library in adult education classes, and the promotion of the use of the school library by adults.

Another area of endeavor in the public interest could include help from the librarian for members of youth organizations, the requirements of which include library work. Examples of this are the Boy Scouts of America, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, 4-H Clubs, etc.

Book exhibits also are successful in attracting public attention to the library. The exhibit might be one in which publishers participate by displaying their latest books. Another type of exhibit might be one which displays a collection of rare books. People in the community who have collections or works of art might like to have them displayed. Radio and television stations as well as local newspapers usually are pleased to tell the public about these exhibits and to encourage attendance.

ALL-SCHOOL RELATIONS

Where in a school system do all paths cross? The library is the veritable center of all academic activities. From the teenager searching for his first venture in fiction of his own choice to the senior working on his assignmnet in the classics, singly, quietly, and in groups not so quietly, they meet in the library where the storehouse of knowledge is recorded and ready for reference. Teachers chat over professional materials. Administrators plan, mediate, think and perform their tasks, consulting and working with librarians, teachers and students. Elementary teachers gradually introduce their students to the wonders in the library with visions that that some day browsing will stimulate research in depth.

Everyone who enters the library is an individual. He is the sum of his total experiences. Each has a personality which is his own, combining his attitudes, philosophy, fears, and aspirations. Communication, spoken and silent, brings influences together. The environment of a good library is that of a laboratory where human relations function. Each one becomes a part of the other. The library is the one place where the total school becomes truly integrated.

EVALUATION OF THE LIBRARY SERVICES

Most librarians want to improve the service of their systems, and will therefore make evaluations based on personal observations, opinions expressed by teachers and students, and accomplishments made during the year. Many times, a librarian's report is presented formally to the principal or supervisor of libraries.

However evaluation is reached, it plays an essential role in the maintenance of high standards of library services. An instrument for self-study or independent evaluation for library services is available. (3). It has been validated regionally and nationally for evaluation as outlined in the instrument also may be used as inservice education guides and for the initiation of a school library. The instrument can be used as a set of standards of criteria to assure quality and completeness.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for LIBRARY SERVICES

1. Examine the six point program of the American Association of School Librarians. Describe the merits of each.

2. Describe how ideal library services will differ in a small elementary school and a large, modern secondary school. What guiding principles should prevail in both?

3. How can the principal make the libraries more effective?

4. Discuss open-closed shelves. What is the principal purpose of the school library?

5. What are potential sources of funds for libraries?

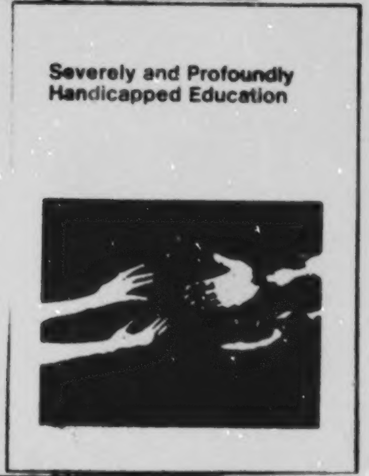
6. What is the purpose of an effective Professional Library? What are the characteristics of a good one?

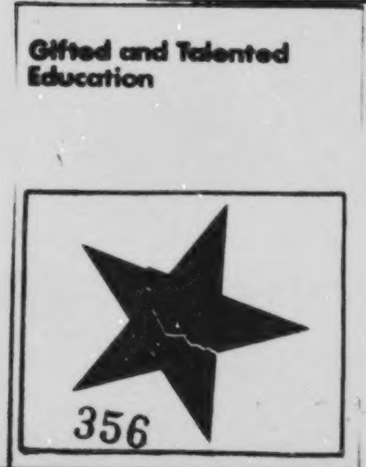
7. Identify five or more major concepts about library services.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER XII

Mental Retardation


Severely and Profoundly
Handicapped Education


Gifted and Talented
Education

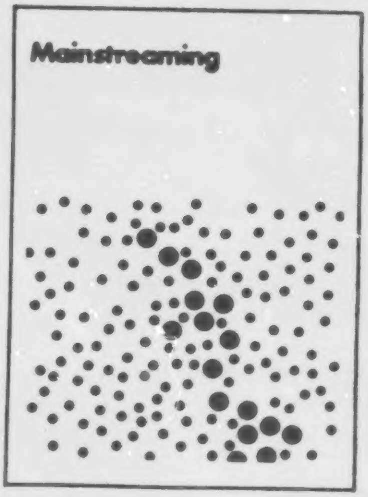
SPECIAL EDUCATION

Special Education is that portion of the school's instructional program that is directed toward providing an education for handicapped children that compares as nearly as possible to that provided for normal students. The successful accomplishment of this goal is a challenge that demands a maximum amount of effort, skill, and ingenuity on the part of administrative teachers alike. Major and individual adjustments are necessary. Handicapped children include those with a variety of physical, mental, or emotional disabilities. The Federal Government Recognizes the Following Catagories of Handicapping Conditions: (P.L.94-142 Funding Application, 1982-83)

a. Visually Handicapped
b. Hearing Impaired
c. Deaf/Blind
d. Orthopedically Handicapped
e. Other Health Impaired
f. Autistic
g. Mentally Retarded
h. Emotionally Disturbed
i. Learning Disabled
j. Speech Handicapped
k. Multihandicapped

DEVELOPMENT OF MAINSTREAMING IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Historically, the provision of education for the handicapped has not been adequate. The longest tradition that permeated most of European and American history was one in which the major goal in regard to handicapped individuals was to prevent them as completely as possible from interfering with normal society. The measures used to accomplish this often bordered on barbarism. In recent decades, significant developments in the education of students with particular handicapping conditions led to an increased number of professional educators possessing effective skills for educating the handicapped. To maximize the contribution of these professionals, handicapped students were grouped together according to handicapping condition and, as a result, were generally segregated from the mainstream of the school program. However, it was increasingly recognized that this educational arrangement was not working to the advantage of the handicapped child. In recent years, however, legislation in various states and by the federal government has moved toward providing education for handicapped children in the "least restrictive environment." This has meant that there has been great pressure to return the handicapped child, particularly if the handicap is mild, to the regular classroom. This "mainstreaming" move culminated in the passage of Public Law 94-142, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act. (1:45).



This raises a serious question about the educational program. Why, after much money and time were spent in recent decades on developing special placements for handicapped children, is there this sudden heavy pressure to return them to the mainstream of the regular classroom? There are several reasons: (1) There has been growing recognition that the most effective education techniques are severely limited if the context in which they are offered prevents handicapped students from taking a productive place in adult society. There is evidence, though it is not conclusive, that handicapped children are hindered by placement in special classrooms. (2) The learning characteristics of handicapped youngsters are not uniform. There is as much variance in learning characteristics with a particular handicapping condition as there is between conditions evident in a regular classroom. If this is true, there is no instructional benefit of special placement. (3) There has been a growing concern with due process in our society. The due process of handicapped students has probably been most significantly violated in regard to the negative effects of labeling. (4) There has been an overrepresentation of minorities in special education classes. Thus, special education placement was seen as operating against the society's efforts to desegregate.

These last two points have been particularly important in the move toward mainstreaming. Taken together they indicate that the current emphasis in that direction has resulted not primarily from educational research but from a philosophical and legal concern over the rights of children. The pressure for mainstreaming did not originate with regular educators, either classroom teachers or line administrators, but with pressure from university professors, courtroom lawyers, state and federal legislators, and parents.

OBJECTIVES OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

The current objectives of special education, as embodied in P.L. 94-142 (1:5-7) include the following:

1. It is the responsibility of schools to meet the educational needs of all handicapped children.

2. The unique needs of each handicapped child must be served by the provision of educational opportunities that are based upon a systematic procedure of identifying, providing, and evaluating educational services.

3. To the maximum degree appropriate, the handicapped child should be educated with non-handicapped children and should be removed from the regular education environment only when the nature or degree of the handicapping condition makes it impossible, even with the use of supplementary services, to meet the child's educational needs.

4. In classifying the handicapping condition of the child, evaluation instruments should be used that accurately assess specific areas of educational need and should not be limited to general intelligence or achievement tests.

5. Placement of the handicapped child should not only be based on a comprehensive assessment of the handicapping condition but should also consider the physical condition, sociocultural background, and demonstrated adaptive behaviors of the child.

6. The handicapped child and the child's parents have constitutional rights to procedural and substantive due process, to participate in the planning and implementation of the child's educational program, to confidentiality of records, and to participate in all educational programs and activities in the least restrictive environment.

PROCEDURAL DUE PROCESS

Emanating as it did from philosophical and legal concern over the rights of children, it is only natural that Public Law 94-142 (1:34-38) would incorporate requirements for procedural due process. Specifically, the law guarantees these rights to the handicapped child.

1. The right to notice. Written notice must be effectively given and parental consent obtained before any decision about the educational program of the child is implemented.

2. The right to a hearing. If the parents or guardian or the school so desire, they may request a hearing regarding identification, evaluation, placement, or any other aspect of the child's educational program. The hearing is conducted by the state or local educational agency (as determined by state law) and must comply with due process requirements.

3. The right to personal presence. The child's parents or guardian has the right to be personally present at the hearing and to raise issues.

4. The right to counsel. The child may be represented by legal counsel or by persons who are expert in the handicapping condition.

5. The right to protection against arbitrary ruling and the right to fairness and impartiality. To help guarantee this right, the hearing may not be conducted by an employee of the school authority providing education for the child or by anyone who may, due to personal or professional status, have a conflict or interest in the hearing.

6. The right to a hearing time. The hearing must be begun and finished as quickly as possible (within 45 days) and must be convenient in time and place for attendance to the child and parents.

7. The right of proof of damages. The possible damages that may result from implementation of a decision are appropriate issues to be considered in the hearing.

8. The right to introduce evidence. A party to the hearing not only has the right to raise issues, but the right to present evidence and to confront, cross-examine, and compel the attendance of witnesses.

9. The right to a hearing before a tribunal of jurisdiction. If the hearing conducted by the school district is not considered satisfactoory, an aggrieved party may take the case to the state education agency, or, if the state's ruling is unsatisfactory, to a civil court.

10. The right to examine records. The parents of the handicapped child must have the opportunity to inspect and review all records relevant to the identification, evaluation, and placement of the child.

11. The right of the child to replacement status during proceedings. While the educational placement of a child is awaiting determination, the child must remain in his or her present educational placement or, if the hearing regards initial admission to a public school, the child must be

placed in the public school program (if the parents consent).

12. The right to surrogate parent. When the parents are not known or are unavailable or if the child is a ward of the state, the state may, to protect the rights of the child, appoint a surrogate parent. This person must not be employed by the school authority or have other conflict of interest.

13. The right to independent evaluation. The parents of a handicapped child must be afforded the opportunity to obtain an independent evaluation on the child. Where this independent evaluation is deemed appropriate at a hearing, it is conducted at public expense, it must be considered by the school authority in reaching its decision about the child's educational program.

The school authorities should incorporate the spirit of due process into all their activities. By recognizing the value of parents contibution and expert opinion in developing a program for the handicapped child and by actively working to incorporate them into decisions about the child's education, the school administrator can make due process an ally.

PERSONNEL RESOURCES

Special Education Personnel

The direction of recent legislation has been to integrate the handicapped child has much as possible into the regular classroom, but this thrust as in no way diminished the need for personnel who are specially trained for educating students with particular handicaps. The recent legislation, however, has considerably modified the role of these personnel. They are less likely to have total responsibility for the education of a group of handicapped children and more likely to serve in support of a regular classroom teacher.

Special education teachers are especially prepared for dealing with the various categories of handicapping recognized by the school system and the federal government. In addition to the special education teacher there are a variety of support personnel. These include the following roles: directors, supervisors, diagnosticians, counselors, and aides.

JOB DESCRIPTION

The following job descriptions were developed in the Spring Branch Independent School District, Houston, Texas.

Job Title: Executive Director, Special Education

Major Functions and Responsibilities: The person in this position is responsible for the development and coordination of the Special Education Program.

Examples of Key Duties:

(1) consult with teachers, parents, principals and agencies

(2) interpret the Special Education Program to all school personnel, student groups and interested individuals

(3) serve as school advisor to parent groups for exceptional children

(4) serve as contact person to the Education Service Center, the County Department of Education and the Council of Administrators of Special Education

(5) execute and submit reports required for the office of the General Superintendent and the state education agency

(6) supervise maintenance of audit files

Staff Relationships: This person is directly responsible to the Deputy Superintendent for Instruction.

Qualifications: The person in this position should have the following minimum credentials:

(1) master's degree in related field

(2) valid certificate appropriate for position

(3) previous teaching experience

Job Title: Coordinator, Special Education

Major Functions and Responsibilities: The person in this position maintains and improves instruction and curriculum for the areas of retarded, emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped, auditorilly handicapped, visually handicapped, speech and language handicapped, talent conservation, and homebound.

Examples of Key Duties:

(1) provide leadership, consultation and communication to district personnel

(2) coordinate, appraise, evaluate, maintain and revise district-wide programs

(3) coordinate and evaluate pilot programs

(4) plan, implement and lead professional growth courses, inservice training and workshops

(5) keep well informed regarding current development in areas of content, methodology, materials, equipment, philosophy and innovations

(6) plan and lead department chairman meetings

(7) maintain appropriate records in special education as required by federal, state, and local regulations

Staff Relationships: This person is directly responsible to the Executive Director of Special Education.

Qualifications: The person in this position should have the following minimum credentials:

(1) master's degree in related field

(2) valid certificate appropriate for position

(3) previous teaching experience

Job Title: Diagnostician

Major Functions and Responsibilities: The person in this position coordinates and schedules all referrals for individual evaluations with the individual staff, seeing that this information is disseminated to the appropriate person and co-supervises the diagnosticians in the field.

Examples of Key Duties:

(1) organize testing schedules and consultations for interpretation of testing

(2) review all written psychological reports, sending them on

to appropriate personnel, as well as medical personnel as requested by parents.

(3) schedule appropriate evaluations with personnel, professionals and parents

(4) provide leadership, coordination and consultation for personnel and parents

(5) plan and implement in-service training and workshops

Staff Relationships: This person is directly responsible to the Executive Director of Special Education.

Qualifications: The person in this position should have the following minimum credentials:

(1) master's degree in related field

(2) valid certificate appropriate for position

(3) previous teaching experience

Job Title: Counselor

Major Functions and Responsibilities: The person in this position is responsible for consultation with students who have major behavioral, adjustment, or emotionally based problems.

Examples of Key Duties:

(1) confer with teachers, the principal, and parents to determine the child's needs.

(2) conduct home visits and contact other supportive personnel when necessary

(3) confer with the child in group or individual sessions as deemed necessary

(4) recommend educational plans and/or further constructive

situations to meet the child's needs

(5) plan and prepare materials necessary for the child's guidance

(6) maintain records and schedules

(7) make classroom observations

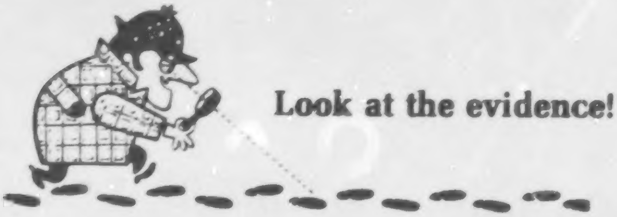
Staff Relationships: This person is directly responsible to the Executive Director of Special Education.

Qualifications: The person in this position should have the following minimum credentials:

(1) master's degree in related field

(2) valid certificate appropriate for position

(3) previous teaching experience


Look at the evidence!

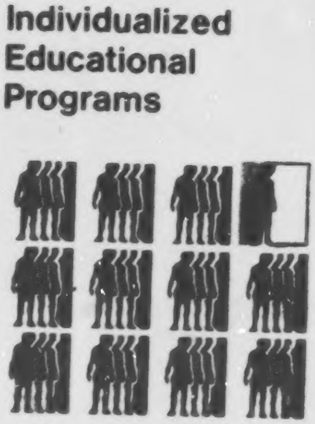
Regular Education Personnel

Regular educators, both teachers and administrators, are assuming an expanded role in the education of the handicapped. The regular educator has the primary responsibility for developing and implementing the student's individualized education program.

THE INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM (IEP)

The individualized Education Program (IEP) is a primary means for assuring appropriate education of handicapped children. The IEP is also a key method of preventing mislabeling and misclassification of children as handicapped. P.L. 94-142 (1:15-25) requires that the IEP be developed cooperatively and in writing at a meeting attended by a representative of the local educational agency (an administrator), the teacher, the child's parents or guardian, and the child when appropriate. Additional individuals, such as specialists on certain aspects of handicapping, may also attend the meeting.

The written statement shall include:



(a) a statement of the present levels of educational performance of the handicapped child

(b) a statement of annual goals

(c) a statement of short-term instructional objectives

(d) a statement of the specific educational services to be provided to the handicapped child

(e) a statement relative to the extent to which the handicapped child will be able to participate in regular educational programs

(f) the projected data for initiation and anticipated duration of such services

(g) appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least an annual basis, whether instructional objectives are being achieved.

The usefulness of the IEP is determined by the success of its implementation. Implementation, in turn, is heavily dependent upon the effectiveness of the evaluation procedures used. It cannot be over-emphasized that appropriate objectives must be regularly evaluated according to appropriate criteria and that this evaluation must be used to provide direction for the handicapped child's program. Such careful monitoring is both educationally and legally imperative.

ASSESSMENT AND PLACEMENT IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

It is obvious that placement of the child to receive special education services should always be a direct function of adequate assessment procedures.

What starts the whole process? What makes a school district decide to conduct a comprehensive assessment of the child?

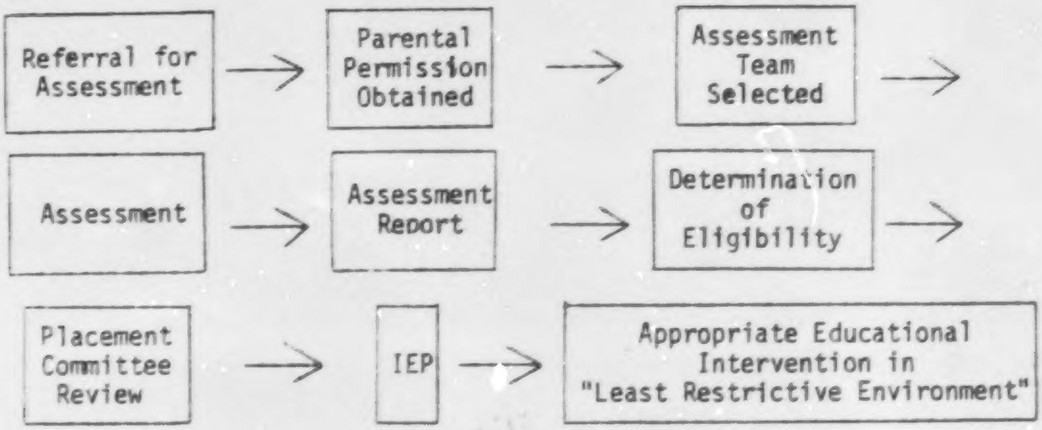
The original referral for comprehensive assessment of a child can come from a variety of sources. Routine school screening for educational and physical impairments might be the source of original referral. Observations by regular classroom teachers is another source. Referrals often originate with the child's parents or guardian or with the child's physicians.

Following referral for assessment, it is important that parental permission be obtained before further assessment is performed (unless, of course, the original referral came through the parents). Federal and state legislation have ensured that parents will be central partners in the entire educational process for the handicapped child. It is essential that they be brought into the process at this early stage.

On the basis of the information contained in the referral, an assessment team is identified and the assessment is conducted. The assessment should be conducted and reviewed by all specialists and regular school personnel who have contributions to make. An assessment report is developed by the team and is forwarded to the placement committee.

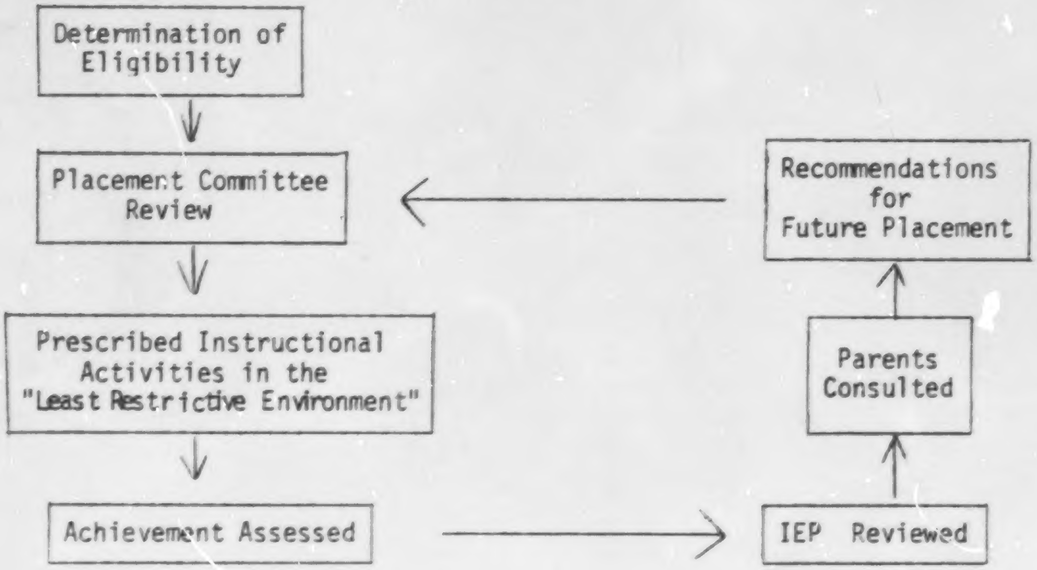
This is an important point in the whole process, because while the assessment process may clearly indicate eligibility of a student for placement in a special program it does not guarantee such placement. This is a decision for the placement committee and is reflected in the child's IEP which they develop. The IEP represents the placement decision that determines the educational setting within which the individual needs of the child can best be met under the least restrictive conditions.

In review, the assessment-placement process may be diagrammed as follows:


Referral for Assessment
Parental Permission Obtained
Assessment Team Selected
Assessment
Assessment Report
Determination of Eligibility
Placement Committee Review
IEP
Appropriate Educational Intervention in "Least Restrictive Environment"

DELIVERY OF INSTRUCTION TO THE HANDICAPPED CHILD

The instructional process for the handicapped child focuses on the provisions of the IEP. To visualize this, we may consider the instructional process as an extension of the previous diagram:


Determination of Eligibility
Placement Committee Review
Prescribed Instructional Activities in the "Least Restrictive Environment"
Achievement Assessed
IEP Reviewed
Parents Consulted
Recommendations for Future Placement

Thus, the IEP is clearly intended, and should be used by the administrator, as a device for instructional management. Perhaps, in the long run, the greatest contribution of the new special education legislation will be the requirement for systematic planning, programming, and evaluation of the instructional program. This process, required now by law for handicapped children, is a sound tool for instructional management and has potential benefit for all children in the schools. The school administrator who genuinely wishes to improve the overall instructional program of his school should not overlook this potential.

THE LEAST RESTRICTIVE ENVIRONMENT

Public Law 94-142 (1:15-25) and other recent federal legislation repeatedly stress that the handicapped student must receive an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment. This requirement highlights the so-called "mainstreaming" provisions of the new laws. There are three parts to this requirement:

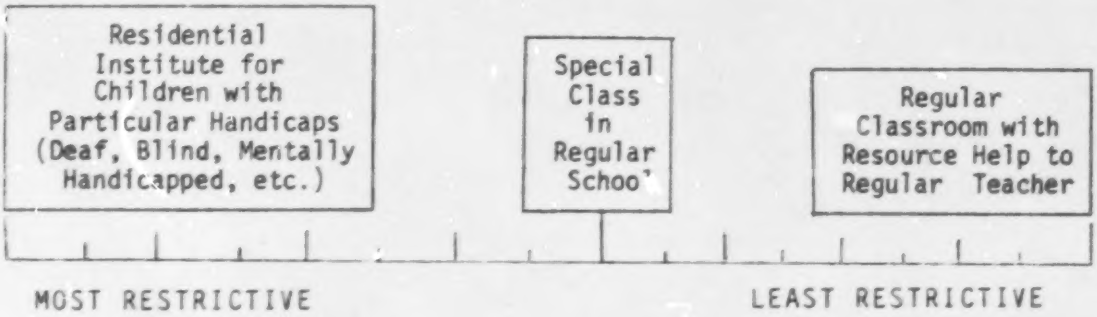
(a) First, the handicapped child should be integrated into the regular classroom. This means that the handicapped youngster should be physically in the regular classroom for a sufficient length of time and should be as much a part of the regular instructional and social process of the classroom as possible so that the instructional and social benefits of the regular program can be maximized for him/her.

(b) Second, there should be a coordinated planning and programming process for the delivery of instructional and social benefits to the handicapped youngster.

(c) Responsibilities of regular and special educators for delivering the instructional and social program to the handicapped student should be clarified.

The IEP is the document by which these provisions are planned, implemented, and evaluated.

In practical terms, what is meant by "least restrictive environment?" It should be clear by this point that this decision will have to be made separately for each student. Nevertheless, the following diagram should suggest what is generally intended by this phrase.


Residential Institute for Children with Particular Handicaps (Deaf, Blind, Mentally Handicapped, etc.)
Special Class in Regular School
Regular Classroom with Resource Help to Regular Teacher
MOST RESTRICTIVE
LEAST RESTRICTIVE

Illustrative Diagram - Least Restrictive Environment

MATERIALS AND FACILITIES

Providing handicapped children with a free appropriate public education means that many additional teaching materials must be brought into the school and also that specific alterations in facilities may be necessary to accomodate the needs of handicapped children.

Materials

The school will clearly have to invest in additional materials to meet the needs of the handicapped student. These material may be classified into two categories: (1) those materials especially designed for children with a particular handicapping condition; (2) those materials that can be used by teachers in regular classrooms which are appropriate for working with children who have handicapping conditions. Obviously these two categories are not entirely separate, but this division serves to emphasize both the need for developing special materials to facilitate learning for the handicapped and the need for developing materials that will help integrate the handicapped child into the regular classroom.

In recent decades, materials have been specially developed for youngsters with nearly every type of handicap. For the blind youngster, for example, textbooks can be either purchased in or translated into braille editions. Other tactile materials can help the blind youngster learn mathematical and geographical concepts in a manner that helps compensate for his inability to see. In a similar manner, excellent material especially prepared for the deaf, the mentally retarded, or other handicapped youngster are increasingly available.

In addition, since an important goal of the integrated classroom is to enable both the handicapped child and the normal youngster to appreciate how the handicpped person can function productively in society, materials are needed that support this learning. Materials of this sort have been developed and should be investigated as a valuable learning resource for both handicapped and normal children, in the school program.

The school district's special education personnel, through their contacts with professional associations and colleges and universities, usually have a wealth of materials to recommend in both categories. State education agencies and regional service centers also are usually well qualified to suggest and/or supply special education materials to local school districts.

Facilities

Students with physical handicaps, particularly those who are crippled often require considerable modifications in facilities. Fortunately, some excellent guidelines have been developed to assist the school district in determining what specific adjustments they will have to make in current facilities to meet the needs of the handicapped. One particularly good guide is Barrier Free School Facilities for Handicapped Students made available by Educational Research Services (6).

Periodically, every school will have to evaluate the adequacy of its facilities and determine what must be done with them to provide access to handicapped students. The administrator should think through this problem by considering where the handicapped youngster must be in the school program and what he will have to do when he gets there.

It may be useful to use the matrix which follows to begin thinking about the number of alterations in facilities that must be considered. This should be a particularly useful exercise, because, while it is not intended to take the place of a formal survey instrument, such as the one produced by Educational Research Services (6), it can help the administrator develop an orientation that is sensitive to the special needs of handicapped youngsters. Without such an orientation on the part of the administrator, it will be difficult for the special education program to be fully effective.

A few entries have already been made on the matrix. An "X" has been placed in the row opposite "Doorways" and in the column under "orthopedically handicapped". This indicates that doorways must open sufficiently wide to allow a student in a wheel chair to enter the building. Similarly an X has been placed in the "During Emergencies" row under Blind, Visually Handicapped, Deaf-Blind, Deaf And hearing impaired. The school building must be equipped with both audible and stimmultaneous warning signals, since either one or the other will be inadequate to convey the warning to the deaf or blind student.

A Guide for Modifying Facilities for Handicapped Students

MODIFICATIONS WILL BE NEEDED TO HELP THE HANDICAPPED CHILD?

LOCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED CHILD	MENTALLY HANDICAPPED	EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED	CRIPPLED	BLIND, VISUALLY IMPAIRED	DEAF, HARD OF HEARING	DEAF-BLIND	OTHER HANDICAPPED
On Way to School:							
Busses							
Other Transportation							
Parking							
Crossings							
Walkways							
Curbs							
Entering/Leaving Schools:							
Stairs and Rails							
Ramps							
Doorways							X
Moving in School:							
Corridors							
Floors							
Doorways							
Classrooms:							
Regular classrooms							
Physical Education							
Industrial Arts/Voc. Ed.							
Homemaking							
Music							
Art							
Laboratories							
Other Facilities:							
Offices							
Auditoriums/Theaters							
Stadiums							
Cafeteria							
Play Areas							
Library							
Study Carrels							
Reference Books							
Stacks							
Restrooms							
During Emergencies				X	X	X	

MH - Mentally Handicapped
ED - Emotionally Disturbed
CP - Crippled
BV - Blind, Visually Impaired
DH - Deaf, Hard of Hearing
DB - Deaf - Blind
OH - Other Handicapped

It should be kept in mind that this matrix is merely a starting place to begin thinking about the appropriateness of facilities for handicapped persons. This needs to be followed by a systematic survey using the items and specifications prescribed through a formal survey instrument such as that developed by Educational Research Service (6).

FINANCING SPECIAL EDUCATION

Public Law 94-142 (1:45) provides that every handicapped child be provided with a "free appropriate public education." The "appropriateness" of the child's education is determined by the processes, previously described, which lead to the formation, implementation, evaluation, and review of the child's IEP. The "free" and "public" requirements mean that tax money, not the resources of the child's family, will be used to finance the appropriate education. When the requirements of special education (including highly-trained specialized personnel, individual instruction, special materials and facilities, and medical support) are considered, the cost of instructing a relativey small proportion of the society's children becomes staggering. The cost in terms of additional staff energy and the diversion of energy, time, and material resources from non-handicapped students have been felt by local educators but have been hard to translate into dollar amounts. Nevertheless, these "hidden" costs may turn out to be the greatest effect of the new legislation upon public education.

To offset at least the additional dollar amounts required, P.L. 94-142 also provides for assistance to states and localities in their efforts. The local education agency (usually a school district) that wishes to obtain assistance from the Federal government has the opportunity to submit an application to its state education agency. This application must be submitted to the state agency in order to receive funds under the law and must delineate what the local district will do with the money. Furthermore, the local plan must follow the guidelines of a state plan, which in turn must have been approved by the U.S. Commissioner of Education.

It should be noted that the local district is not required to submit an application unless it wishes to receive federal funds under the provisions of P.L. 94-142. Nevertheless, this does not change the requirement of the local district to provide all handicapped children with a free appropriate public education. This is required under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. (P.L. 93-112).

The planning process that leads to a school district's application should follow good management procedures of planning, designing, implementation, control, evaluation, and review. These procedures, of course, extend to the entire operation of the school district. To meet the specific requirements of P.L. 94-142, these procedures must also cover (a) child identification, (b) confidentiality, (c) full educational opportunity goal, (d) facilities, personnel, and services, (e) priorities (f) parental involvement and public participation, and (g) funding provisions.

The "full educational opportunity goal" refers to the inclusion of all handicapped children 0 to 21 and specifically requires that a free appropriate public education be available to all children 3 to 18 by September 1, 1978, and 3 to 21 by September 1, 1980 (3).

The law also sets two "priorities" that must be addressed in the application. First priority children are those handicapped children who are not receiving any public education. Second priority children are those handicapped children with the most severe handicaps within each disability who are receiving some but not all the services specified in their IEP's. The local district must make assurances in its application that all first priority children will be served prior to turning attention to second priority children.

In regard to funding provisions, the local district's application must assure the state that the funds received will be used only for the purpose of providing free appropriate public education to handicapped children and that the materials and equipment purchased will be administered by the local school district. Furthermore, the funds can be used only for the excess costs of providing education to handicapped children. The funds received cannot be used to supplant any special education funds that are received from state, local, or other funds.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Obviously, legislation has mandated that the administration and organization of special education will be an extremely complex and significant portion of the school's operation. The development of the local application and individual IEP's, together with all their supporting procedures for data gathering, planning, review, audit, implementation, and evaluation, will necessarily cause a major drain upon the total resources of the school. The funds supplied by the federal governmetn for direct excess costs can, at best, only replace a portion of the real costs in energy, time, and other resources that the local district will have to expend to fulfill the requirements of the law. This occurs at a time when taxpayers are increasingly reluctant to spend money for schools.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

There are few areas of the public school operation that stir public emotions as powerfully as the special education program does. Recent legal mandates for the education of handicapped have emanated not so much from objective research as from an advocacy for the rights of handicapped persons. Parents, particularly, have a strong emotional investment in the education of their handicapped children. They have been joined by attorneys, university professors and other potent interest groups. The school administrator must provide an exemplary educational program to parents and other advocates for the handicapped. They can be among the school's most valuable allies in gaining public support for education.

At the same time, the school administrator must keep in mind that there are other students in the school whose educational interests must be served. Publicity must not only highlight programs for the handicapped. Handicapped youngsters, though an important minority of the school population, are still a minority. If parents with non-handicapped children believe that the gains of handicapped children are being made at the expense of their own, they may withdraw their support from the school. Similarly, if parents of other special groups of children, such as the gifted feel that the interests of their children are being sacrificed to the interests of the handicapped, they are likely to form separate power groups for their own purposes. The effective school administrator should not allow this. A high quality education must be afforded to all students, and the public must be made aware of it.

EVALUATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES

An adequate evaluation of special education services in today's school must be closely related to the requirements of federal legislation. One good starting point for determining the objective of the evaluation is the local district's application for federal funds. This application must be addressed to the following: (1) child identification, (2) confidentiality, (3) full educational opportunity goal, (4) facilities, personnel and services, (5) priorities, (6) parental involvement and public participation, and (7) funding provisions. The evaluation should seek to determine how well the school is fulfilling not only the letter, but also the spirit of the law in meeting these requirements. From the organization and administive standpoint, an instrument has been developed for the evaluation of the school's special education program. It is contained in a booklet titled INSTRUMENTS FOR THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOL SPECIAL SERVICES. (5)

THE GIFTED CHILD

The gifted child, like the handicapped child, presents unique challenges for the educational system. Therefore it is often included within the scope of special education. The gifted child is not covered by the provisions of Public Law 94-142 and other related federal legislation; but provisions of identification, individualized programming, and free appropriate instruction that legislation stipulates for the handicapped must be provided.

One particularly important element in providing an appropriate education to gifted children is identification. Who is the gifted child? This is a more dificult question than many educators realize. Many educators, if asked to select gifted children from a student body, would choose students who were doing well in their acadmic subjects and/or who scored high on standardized achievement and group intelligence tests. But such students are already doing well in school and are being served reasonably well by the educational system. This popular conception of "giftedness" is one of the major reasons why special programs for the gifted often do not receive widespread public support. Why provide more to students who are already being served well by the school?

But this argument ignores the real need of special eduation for the gifted student. "The learners in the upper 2% of the intelligence scale need as much special instruction to continue their growth as the students at the lower end. Yet seldom are special classes provided, or resource personnel made available. Since all students must adjust to the average classroom program, the gifted student loses the most." (2:135)

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for SPECIAL EDUCATION

1. What new or improved skills are required of the school administrator because of PL94-142? How may these be developed?

2. Examine the procedures which are used in one school or school district to implement PL94-142. To what extent do these practices differ from what is specifically stated in PL94-142? What changes would you recommend in these procedures?

3. Discuss the impact of PL94-142 on public school operations with a person who was an administrator both before and after the advent of the law. How has the law made a change in the school's operation? How can school procedure be modified to better accomplish both the objectives of the law and the total educational mission of the school?

4. What are the basic components of an IEP? Describe the advantages and disadvantages, both administrative and instructional, of the IEP. Be prepared to participate on either side of the issue, in a class debate regarding the value of the IEP.

5. What would be your plan of action/response if a parent objects to diagnostic/placement procedures for a special education student in your school system?

6. Describe the rationale behind the "least restrictive environment" principle of PL94-142. What are the implications of this principle for non-handicapped students?

7. What kinds of inservice activities should be planned for regular classroom teachers concerning the school's special education program?

8. How might special education delivery procedures differ for elementary and secondary students?

9. What will be your school's response for requests for special services for a profoundly handicapped student who has just moved to your district - (For example - requiring a teacher skilled in sign-language or braille skills). Will you provide the service residentially? Will you contract?

10. If parents of a handicapped student are declining to send their child to the public schools in your district and are not providing any alternative private effort, what will be your response relative to fulfilling your legal obligation under the law?

11. How are the needs of "gifted" youngsters similar to the needs of handicapped youngsters? How are they different?

12. What building changes would be necessary to adequately accomodate handicapped students in your school system?

DISCIPLINE
AND
STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

CHAPTER XIII

DISCIPLINE AND STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

Student discipline is one of the most pervasive problems faced by secondary schools today. The widely read and quoted Gallup Poll on education has annually told us, at least throughout the decade, that student discipline is the number one concern of Americans about our public schools.

This chapter deals with two topics that should be considered together: Discipline and Student Involvement. That these two topics are often considered separately may be one reason that many schools have difficulty administering either one or both of them. Unfortunately, in many schools two entirely different sets of students are considered when "discipline" and "student involvement" are planned and carried out. But all students need to be part of both. All students need to acquire these by being involved in some meaningful activities. In the school setting, the most meaningful type of involvement for the student can be obtained through personal involvement in the conduct and governance of the school itself.

That is why these two usually separate topics are considered together. Although treated separately, their close relationship should be remembered. Student discipline is an educational goal of the school; student involvement is a means by which it is attained.

DISCIPLINE

"Discipline," as the term is used with respect to the conduct of students in schools, means different things to different people. For some, "student discipline" is synonymous with "student control." The implication of this definition is that student activity is likely to endanger the normal course of the instructional process and that it must be controlled. In this chapter, the preferred definition of discipline makes discipline an integral part of the total instructional benefit that is afforded the student through the school. Such a definition implies self-discipline. The positive behavior traits that the youngster brings into later life are as essential a part of his basic education as are the skills he acquires in reading and mathematics.

With this orientation, the procedures for discipline in a school should not be primarily suited to fit the needs of the school organization, but rather the pupil's instructional benefit. The student will need habits of self-discipline as an adult. The school must work to develop those habits.

Discipline v. Control

The preceding discussion might suggest to the reader that "control" of students as a school device is inappropriate. This is not the case. With classrooms containing 20, 30, or more students, and with schools containing 500, 1000, or even more students becoming increasingly prevalent, it is often necessary to control the aberrant behavior of some students so that others may obtain benefit of the instruction to which they are entitled. But such control procedures should be temporary and limited to those actions that are absolutely necessary, they should be carefully followed up to ensure that instructional benefit to the students "controlled" is maximized. Control of student behavior should not be an end to itself. Furthermore, steps taken to obtain control or instill discipline should never be the outcomes of the angry emotions of teachers or administrators.

Structure must be developed to ensure that the student always receives due process in disciplinary procedures, that control and discipline procedures are not applied in an arbitrary fashion, and that the educational benefit of the pupil is kept foremost in the prescription of disciplinary and control procedures.

Discipline techniques must always be judged in terms of their effects--both short-range and long-range. If a technique promotes distate for learning or for the habits of self-discipline, it is obviously a poor technique. While control of a student may be a short-range goal in an educational setting, it must always be for the student to acquire self-discipline habits.

Corporal Punishment

One of the most sensitive and controversial issues in public schools today is corporal punishment. On the one hand, civil liberties advocates, such as Nat Hentoff, plead eloquently for its termination in schools and point to cases of gross abuse of students that have been wrought in the name of corporal punishment. (6:513-51). On the other hand, many school administrators and teachers, as well as many parents and others in the community argue with equal eloquence that schools cannot be effective vehicles of instruction unless corporal punishment is available and used appropriately.

Who's right? Probably neither side is right, and, at the same time, probably both sides are right! Having presented this apparent paradox, it should be resolved. The attempted resolution begins by looking at the legal foundation for the use of corporal punishment and at some societal developments that have affected discipline in the schools.

The legal foundation for the corporal punishment (in fact, for all forms of punishment) of students by school authorities is the principle of "in loco parentis" (literally, "in the place of a parent"). This short legal phrase encompasses the belief that in the moral and attitudinal education of the student, the school is an extension of the home. Often forgotten in the debate over disciplinary measures in the schools is a consideration of what has happened in that "home" that is extended into the school.

What has happened to the home in American society? Today's youth are highly peer-group oriented and often turn to one another rather than to their parents or older advisors when forming their beliefs and values. The attitudes of such groups are often more influential than attitudes of the home or school. Briefly, it has tended to become much less stable than it was at an earlier point in our nation's history. Our society is marked by greater geographic mobility, and families often make moves to various parts of the country several times during the child's years in school. More and more children are, for practical purposes, members of single parent families. Also, in an increasing number of cases, both parents in the family have full-time jobs. While none of these reasons guarantee a disruption of the moral training for the youngsters, all have a tendency to create instability in the family and emotional insecurity for the child.

Added to these pressures on the family are other societal changes that have tended to cause instability in the emotional development and behavior patterns of children. The increased urbanization of our society has resulted in less living space and greater pressures for conformity. Individual and social values, which at one time moved relatively slowly from one area of the nation to another, now have greatly accelerated movement, not only because of increased family mobility but because of the increased pervasiveness of the mass media, particularly television. Divergent values are quickly transplanted to parts of the society that are not ready to receive them. Drugs, crime, and violence continue to increse. Other instititutions, such as the church, which have historically bolstered the family, have themselves been adversely affected by the instability that these various pressures generate.

Thus, while dysfunctional behavior patterns are brought into the school and cause increasing disruption, school authorities find that the home of which they are supposed to be an extension is, itself, increasingly less stable. It should be noted then that the chances for basing school discipline procedures on a healthy home environment are increasingly slim. This, then, is the basis for the paradox.

Should corporal punishment be used? Is it effective? The answer is "yes" to both these questions when the corporal punishment is a logical extension of a healthy home environment. This condition greatly limits its use and applicability.

First, as noted above, there are fewer healthy home environments; second, there are fewer and fewer homes that use corporal punishment techniques. Both cases destroy the basis for corporal punishment in the schools. Child abuse is becoming an increasing problem in the homes of our society. The school that administers corporal punishment to a child who is abused at home is likely to unwittingly support those forces which are working to alienate that child from society. If, on the other hand, corporal punishment is administered to a youngster from a home were it is not administered as an effective disciplinary procedure, it will have no meaning, unless, of course, it is used excessively and reaches the point of violence. Violence on the part of school authorities toward students can never be condoned.

All of this means that corporal punishment is probably overrated by both its proponents and its critics. Its usefulness as a technique for developing discipline in the schools is limited to those situations and to those students where it can have a healthy developmental effect on the child. The range of cases which meet these qualifications is becoming increasingly narrow in most schools. At the same time, while child abuse administered by school authorities in the name of discipline must be terminated, the actual cases of child abuse are few and far between. The courts offer a suitable avenue for redress of injustices where abuse does occur. However, when corporal punishment is administered as a corrective measure in a non-emotional atmosphere and in which the student's rights of due process are protected, child abuse is not likely to occur.

Who Determines Discipline Procedures?

The issue of corporal punishment is really a subpart of a broader and more basic issue in the schools. Who determines what disciplinary techniques shall be administered? Social values are changing and fragmenting. It is increasingly unlikely that the public school can assume that there is a consensus of values for the community and itself upon which it can base school procedures. The days when school procedures were a logical extension of homogenous community values are probably gone forever for most school districts. Various segments of the public, apparently not realizing how society has fragmented under these pressures, make conflicting demands upon the schools. School administrators often try to respond to one group at a time and, as a result, often find themselves regularly caught in the middle of controversy.

What can be done? The calendar cannot be turned backward on most social change. The days of a value consensus are probably in the past forever in most communities. In many communities where such a consensus still exists, it may very well vanish in the next few years.

Schools should take the lead in developing a new working value consensus. It would be foolish to pretend that a total consensus, applicable to nearly every aspect of life, characteristic of an earlier time, can be reconstructed. However, schools can work with their communities to obtain agreement on the goals to be achieved and the means to be utilized in important areas of the school operation. Student discipline is an extremely important area. It affects the educational purposes for which schools exist.

The school administrator, as the executive arm of the board of education, can and must take the initiative in building an operating consensus on discipline. Whose values and inputs should be included in this consensus? Very simply, it is anyone who has a legitimate interest in the outcomes of school discipline procedures. Certainly, this consensus must include the values and input of both parents and teachers. It should include, perhaps to a lesser degree, the values and input of other members of the community so that it can be integrated with the values and direction of other institutions. The school administrator not only has the responsibility for orchestrating their input but for giving them focus and ensuring their consistency with the total school program. And, finally, the students themselves must be included in determining the ends and means of school discipline. The school has a responsibility for building life-long habits of self-discipline and self-direction. To exclude the students from the process by which the goals and procedures of school discipline are formulated would be to neglect an invaluable tool for providing this education. Because students' behavior is the focus of the procedures, students respond more readiy if they assist in the development process. The school administrator has a central role in developing sound school discipline. The role of various members of the administrative team should be defined clearly.

Who Administers the Programs?

The superintendent, as the chief administrator of the school district and executive of the board of education, has the major responsibility for seeing that the values of the total community are represented in discipline procedures and that there is reasonable consistency in discipline procedures among different schools in the district. But in larger, multi-building school districts, most of the work will need to be borne by the building principals. It is the building principals who have the most direct contacts with parents, teachers, and students. It is at the building level where discipline procedures will be applied to specific situations and carried out. Numerous instances have been recorded where powerful principals have turned chaotic school situations into orderly learning environments through the institution of effective instructional and disciplinary procedures. (6:13-51) (7).

Cooperating with the superintendent and the principal are the auxiliary staffs at each of these levels. At the superintendent's level there may be psychologists, attendance officer, visiting teachers, legal counselors, and other personnel related to student behavior. On the principals staff there may be assistant principals, counselors, school health personnel, athletic coaches and others, such as class and club sponsors. Each in his unique way can contribute to the over-all behavioral environment. A well conceived system of student governance (student council) supervised by a strong sponsor is especially helpful. Student involvement in policy making and activities is discussed in later sections of this chapter.

The administration of discipline is a two-way street: each student has fundamental rights which the school must respect; each student must respect his obligations to his fellow students, the school operation, and the larger community. The administration of discipline in the schools should seek to develop and maintain a healthy environment for learning while guaranteeing due process and other constitutional rights to each individual. The essential responsibility for formulating and specifying codes of conduct for students belongs to the principal and the professional staff of each school. These codes of conduct are subject to review by the superintendent and the board of education. Once formulated and adopted, the school principal has the primary responsibility for the administration and enforcement of the disciplinary code - subject, of course, to appeals to the superintendent and, through the superintendent, to the board of education.

Fundamental Elements of a School Disciplinary Program

1. Rules and regulations of each school in the district must be clearly published to its students and to their parents.

    a. Rules and regulations are most effective when they serve as a guide to future action, not when they are applied after the fact.

    b. Each student and his/her parents have the responsibility to be acquainted with the published goals.

2. Rules and regulations must be applied equitably to all students. This does not mean that a student will necessarily be corrected in exactly the same way as another student for a given infraction. It does mean that both the educational needs and background of the student and the severity of his infraction will be considered in administering corrective procedures.

3. The punishment should fit the case.

    A single set of enforcement procedures is unlikely to be suitably designed to deal with the wide range of infractions that occur within a school. A major disruptive action that threatens the continuation of normal school activities should not be punished in the same way as a minor procedural infraction on the part of the student. Between these obvious extremes, there are many gradations of severity and intensity. One or two blunt corrective tools will result in a highly imprecise administration of justice and a corresponding growth of disregard and disrespect for the rules and procedures they are designed to enforce.

4. Enforcement procedures must always respect the worth and dignity of the individual student.

5. Enforcement procedures must be educationally defensible: i.e. they should be designed to maximize the educational benefit of the student involved.

Beyond "Disciplining"

"Discipline" in a social setting (such as the school) is never the function of one individual or of a few segments of the total group. It is inevitable the product of the interpersonal and intergroup climate that prevails. In a school, this means that a school atmosphere that sustains educational goals can be built only through the efforts of all persons with legitimate interest in the operation of the schools - students, parents, and staff.

A healthy educational climate is less likely to result from procedures designed to repress negative occurrences than from practices designed to promote positive ones. Clearly, the school's athletic and musical functions, together with their related activities, serve effectively in this regard. The scope of similar activities that involve staff, students, and parents in common educational endeavors should be purposefully expanded. Corrective discipline procedures can also serve in this way. Opportunities to perform services and make positive contributions to the school should be developed and made available as options to other corrective procedures.

Until all participants in the educational process - staff, students, and parents - believe that they have a common interest in the educational process, and work together to prove it, "disciplining" will always be a reactive, ineffective approach. When such a common consciousness becomes a reality, school pride (the logical product of effective discipline), rather than "disciplining" itself, will become the focus of the school organization and the foundation upon which a complete educational program may be built. (3:28-9).

STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

Student participation in a functional democratic model can provide a school with consensus which modifies or negates conflicts between students and other members of the community and school. Student involvement in the schools is an important, positive process designed to solve many problems related to student dissatisfaction. In most cases only open lines of communication as found in student involvement will modify or solve a problem. Student involvement is designed to prevent problems by free flow of information. Furthermore, it guides youth into knowing the common "Americanized character" from a democratic environment and democratic experience. Student involvement in policy making creates a climate of self-discipline. Research has determined that the behavior of students is more likely to be favorable if there is a comprehensive program of involvements. (4) (9)

To initiate student involvement, there must be a provision for planning, communicating, forming consensus, implementing, evaluating, revising, and replanning. The process involves, in varying degrees, school district personnel, students, and sometimes, representatives of the adult community. This design permits school membership to internalize and evaluate behavioral expectancies from adults and students. This provides opportunites to complement, rather than oppose each other on issues. The setting provides administrator, teachers, student, and parent an opportunity to listen, discuss, plan, and make decisions together. Out of this interaction, better understanding is expected.

The Positive Approach

The following are suggestions for student involvement on a system-wide basis:

* A study group composed of parents, administrators, supportive personnel, faculty members, and students initiates recommendations to the superintendent and school board for a program design which includes student involvement.

* The school district policies contain guidelines which provide for student involvement within the context of the total program.

* The school board delegates responsibilities to the administration to provide for program implementation.

* A student board selected district-wide serves as an advisory committee to the superintendent.

* The students are given an opportunity to attend school board meetings so that both adults and youth can gain a better understanding of issues and each other.

- The school committees considering curriculum development and student services have student representation.

- Students serve on ad hoc committees appointed by the school board and superintendent charged with specific assignments.

The following are suggestions for student involvement on school unit basis:

- Each campus unit has a student governance group such as the student council.

- The students are included in planning academic and vocational areas of enrichment.

- The students have a major part in planning school activities for students. These should be broad in scope so that all interests may be satisfied. These may include school dances, assemblies, awards, honors open house, home visitation, and athletic events.

- Services by students are extended to include school operations such as the school store, concession stands, study rooms, and classroom and office aides.

- Student organizations which contribute to a more complete and guided development of the student are encouraged and supported. These may be many in number, according to the student interests and faculty sponsorship availability.

- The services of a faculty ombudsman are available for students. This may or may not be the counselor.

- Forums relevant to the immediate interests of the students are provided through planned scheduled times and locations.

- Evaluation of and suggestions for the program are made periodically. This may include parents, administrators, supportive personnel, faculty members, school board members, and especially students.

Rights and Responsibilities of the School Board

The local board of education is the state agency having the authority to operate the public schools within a specified district. To do this, the board has expressly stated or implied powers for carrying out what is necessary to achieve the school system's goals. It is essential for each board member to know constitutional provisions and statutory and regulatory provisions relating to schools. The board has the responsibility of determing general policies to provide guidance for implementing the school program. These policies should be stated clearly, giving the school system and community the school board's position in all school matters. When this procedure is not followed, decisions and responses of the school and community may not always agree with the board's intentions.

Student involvement is a point of interest in school programs, since a primary obligation of the school board is to operate by principles and practices which exemplify the democratic system of the American society. These principles should be stated in the board's policies related to:

- Respect for persons as individuals
- Recognition of student involvement as a part of the school program
- Control of "activism and militancy" among students through the use of orderly processes
- Provision for due process in student appeals
- No restrictions on race, creed, sex, or color in student governance

Establishment of an Appeals Procedure

A channel for student grievances has a new relevance in organization of a school design. In view of recent Supreme Court decisions, the board of education should take steps, if it has not done so, to develop and put into effect policies which clearly state procedures students can follow in grievance cases. The Fourteenth Amendment and the Bill of Rights protect citizens against state agents, including public school systems. Manley-Casimir (8:1-4) concludes that public school students are "persons" under the U.S. Constitution and have protection of "due process." There must be an adequate notice on charges, a reasonable opportunity to prepare for and meet the charges, and that the hearing be orderly, fair and impartial relative to the situation.

Due process should be assured every student in clearly defined policy. Upon recommendation of the superintendent of schools, the board could include the following elements as deemed feasible and useful:

* Provision is made for a student, group of students, student governance group, or the faculty ombudsman to request a meeting with the principal to present complaints or grievances.

* Following the procedures established in school board policies, a faculty member should be selected to act as an ombudsman to offer counsel and direction to students with complaints or grievances. Also, upon request, the ombudsman may serve as a representative in an intermediary role.

* Assurances are established that complete information concerning the proper procedures in voicing complaints or grievances is made known to all students and is accessible for any student asking direction.

* Full protection from abuse or reprisals for making complaints is guaranteed to all students.

* Provisions are made for a student committee appointed by the student governance group to hear referrals from the faculty ombudsman. The committee may proceed to a conference with the principal.

* Opportunity is allowed officers, representatives, or members of the student body to bring matters relating to the well-being of students before the governance group for discussion.

* Provisions have been made for any student, group of students, or student governance group to appeal to the superintendent any issue which has not been resolved with the principal. The appeal procedure should be arranged by the superintendent.

* Opportunity is provided so that all students should know that the hearing of an issue by the board of education is the last appeal level and its decision is final within the school system's authority.

* Provisions exist for a student or group of students to request the presence of a faculty member(s) in agreement with the procedures.

Curriculum and Involvement of Students

In the contemporary concept, all goals resulting in learning experiences are a part of the school's curriculum. The curriculum, to be successful through inclusion of democratic principles, has in its organizational pattern student involvement in the planning, decision-making, and evaluation process. In traditional approaches, the students' ideas and desires seldom are considered an essential factor in curriculum decision-making. If the student involvement through direct participation is generally accepted, the school should attain desired goals of curriculum design more efficiently and successfully. This is true especially where established social norms exist necessary to uphold individual respect and responsibility for others. As an advocate of student involvement in public high school programs, Brammer (1:13-21) supports full membership for students on curriculum committees.

Student involvement in curriculum decision-making differs from school system to school system. This is natural and proper. The degree of variation depends upon the nature of the school's purpose and the student abilities, interests, and backgrounds. The "committee plan" is an effective means to include members in the group process.

Areas in which students may be involved include:

* The scope of the content for the program of studies and activities

* Provision for individual differences, such as

elective studies	remediation provisions
enrichment studies	sequence in studies
advance placement studies	special interest studies
minicourses	graduation requirements

* The planning of systems for learning, such as

fixed schedules	nongraded programs
variable schedules	extended day programs
flexible schedules	freedom of time programs

School boards should avail themselves of opportunities to understand the abilities, interests, and desires of students. The limits of time and expertise usually makes this impractical. Therefore, administrators, specifically the superintendent, should use each technique at their command to assist in "keeping the board informed."

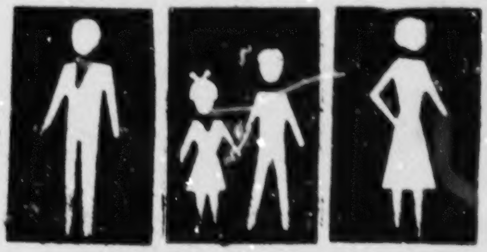
One aproach is a student board of education which operates under the same rules as the system's board of education. Student board recommendations and actions can be part of the agenda which is prepared by the superintendent and his staff. Also, the school board may choose to interact directly with students by including student representation as non-voting participants in board meetings. It is obvious that these planss and variations thereof do not reduce the responsibilities of administrators or the board of education. In fact, it would be more practical to say that added personnel is needed to give counsel and learning experiences through student participation.

Many school systems use study committees of students, parents, teachers, and administrators to formulate recommendations to the school board for adoption of policies on social conduct. Policies to be studied can include:

- Student personal and property rights
- Dress and general appearance of students
- Possession of dangerous articles and materials
- Use, possession, and sale or purchase of drugs, narcotics and similar items
- Cause for suspension or expulsion from school or school activities
- Grievance procedures by which students may be heard and decisions reached.

Communications Systems Within the School

On a system-wide basis, school board policies can encourage school building unit intra-communication by statement of approval and funds to support it. This method can expose current student views on pertinent issues. Students can express themselves freely on school matters about which they are concerned. Reports can be disseminated about faculty-student advisory groups. Some of these issues may include the encouraging of active student participation in curriculum development, allowing student



expression in school newspaper policies, and participation by students in the review and recommended changes in student rules and policies.

- * Lines of communication may be enhanced by the principal through:
  - having an orderly office for students
  - having an "open door" for students
  - listening in its truest sense to students
  - conversing with students informally and openly by "mixing and mingling"
  - organizing free time for conversations with individuals or small groups of students
  - standing in the halls at transition time for informal and friendly expressions
  - attending student activities
  - visiting with students in their organizational meetings
  - periodic meetings with the entire or large segments of the student body
  - eating lunch regularly in the cafeteria with students
  - providing accessible suggestion boxes
- * The student governance group (usually called the Council) can improve communications within the school through involvement in newspaper policy, curriculum evaluation, and the development of student-related rules and regulations.
- * Representatives in student governance should report actions and activities regularly to students and faculty.
- * Student handbooks, yearbooks, handouts, and other publications are major communication tools. Student involvement is essential for acceptance in these media. Student publications are excellent sources for knowing student opinions which probably would not be gained through face-to-face dialogue. While communication tools are desirable, they are only a means to change and understanding and not

understanding and change in themselves.

- * Student newspapers are very important media in internal communication. Newspaper staff and sponsors need written policies for guidance. The informal or spontaneous publication which is unsponsored by the school should be dealt with firmly, but within good professional taste and the law.

- * In the case of the unsponsored publication, plans should be made in advance which include the following:

  - Encourage the publishers to cooperatively work with the principal on the time and place for distribution.

  - Present copies for review to the building principal prior to distribution.

  - Publications should not be sold on school premises. In extreme cases, this includes distribution.

Involvement in Activities

Each student should be encouraged to enter some activity in which he can achieve. Furthermore, the school should make every effort to have a diversified program which "leaves out" no group or individual. It is advisable to provide time during the school day when students may participate in activities.

- * The National Association of Student Councils has given six principles to consider in organizing activities.

The activity should:

- Have meaning
- Provide for interests
- Present a challenge
- Provide an opportunity for every student to participate
- Provide a reasonable chance for success

- Plan activity completion within the year

Activities involving students usually can be placed in one of four divisions. Following are partial lists:

* Services
  - Student directory
  - Student store
  - Student handbook
  - Lost and found
  - Health
  - School yearbook
* Activities
  - Socials
  - Dances
  - Assemblies
  - Pep rallies
  - Forums
  - Athletics
* Organizations
  - Future Farmers of America
  - Future Homemakers of America
  - National Honor Society
  - Band
  - Orchestra
  - Cheerleaders
* Enrichment groups
  - Science club
  - Historical club
  - Book reviews
  - Electronic study group
  - Artist club
  - Poetry group

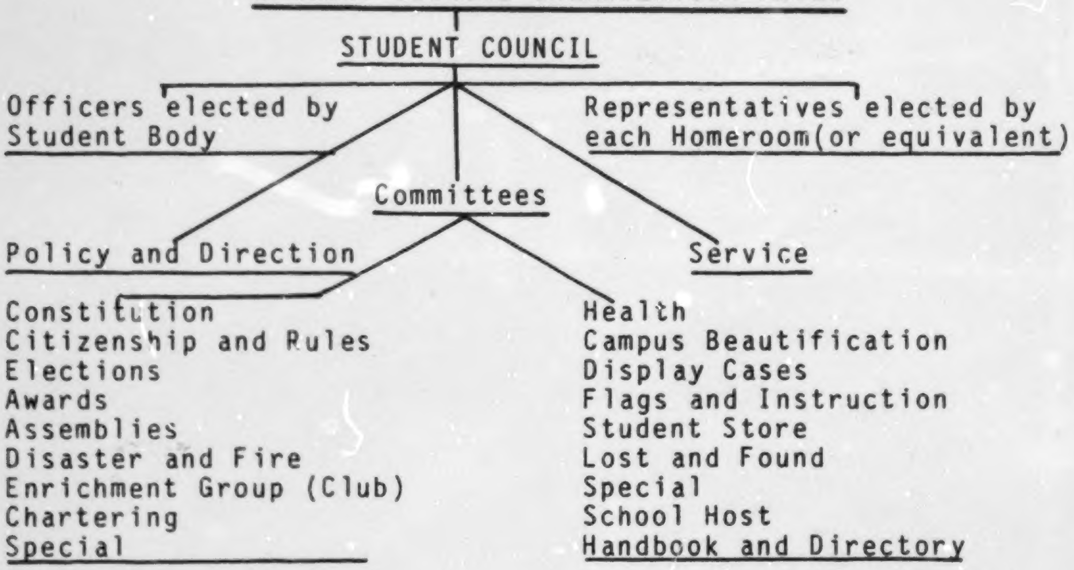
Ideas of involvement of students are limited only by the imagination of people interested in achieving the goals of education. One of these is the development of the young into inquiring, inventive, mature adults who are concerned with the success and happiness of others as well as themselves.

The Student Council

Student governance, also defined as self discipline, has made a major contribution to the success of our American system of government. Student participation is responsible performance in citizenry which is superior to any course of study in which the textbook is the central source of knowledge. One should augment the other. The center of student council activites is involvement which consists of individual and group problems, consensus in decision-making, commitment to accept responsibilities, and appropriate action to achieve successful solutions.

The student council offers an excellent group design for building an organization in student governance. To be an effective organization the students taking part in the student council should be representative of the total student population. A plan of organization of a Student Council follows:

STUDENT COUNCIL ORGANIZATION MODEL


STUDENT COUNCIL
Officers elected by Student Body
Representatives elected by each Homeroom(or equivalent)
Committees
Policy and Direction
Service
Constitution
Citizenship and Rules
Elections
Awards
Assemblies
Disaster and Fire
Enrichment Group (Club)
Chartering
Special
Health
Campus Beautification
Display Cases
Flags and Instruction
Student Store
Lost and Found
Special
School Host
Handbook and Directory

Student Unrest -- Symptoms and Treatment

Reports of student unrest indicate that all schools are subject to disruption regardless of size, type, or location. "There is increasing concern and frustration at the explosion of incidents in urban areas in which school property is being viciously attacked. The headlines in daily newspapers shout forth criminal incidents and shocking statistics." (12:26) An administrator is naive if he feels that "his school" is secure or that "it can't happen here." Every board of education should have a plan stated in the school policies outlining steps to follow when an incidence of disruption occurs. "How can we assess the impact of crime in the public schools of the nation? Following are some of the consequences:

1. Fear increases, concentration on learning is impaired;
2. Morale of staff is weakened;
3. Pupil attendance can be affected in severe crime sector;
4. Staff attendance hindered;

5. Psychological damage to pupils
6. Loss of equipment, books, and supplies have direct effect on learning opportunities;
7. Funds required to replace theft and vandalism losses are no longer available for regular instructional use;
8. Loss of pride in community;
9. Litigation;
10. Loss of respect for school administrator when repetitive violence continues;
11. Serious physical injuries;
12. Personal property loss of individuals;
13. Violation of personal rights;
14. Loss of life; and
15. Delay in construction of protables and buildings."

(12:26)

It would be presumptuous, perhaps improper, to advocate a single plan for handling such matters. There are signs or indications, however, which are recognizable by alert teachers and administrators.

Following are some perceptive statements which may indicate unrest by students and parents:

* Unrest in the school and community

  - There is evidence of influence from outside the community.

  - Juvenile crime rates have increased.

  - The number and type of activities have increased.

  - Parent complaints have increased. These have political overtones.

  - Teacher requests to principals for correction of students have increased.

  - Abusive calls by telephone are being made to faculty and administrative personnel.

  - Requests are being made for unattainable curriculum change.

  - There are inequities in education in some schools in the same system.

  - Accusations are made that decision-making is biased.

  - Faculty members fail to respond to administrative staff personnel.

  - Truancies have increased.
  - Pregnancies are occuring increasingly.

* Defiance of law-abiding practices in the community
  - Student use of alcohol and drugs has increased.
  - Students have been found in possession of knives, guns, and other dangerous weapons.
  - Gang fights and gang attacks upon citizens have occured.
  - Threats are being made to school employees.
  - Vandalism to school and community property has increased.

* Resistance to the school administration by students
  - Infractions of school rules and regulations have increased.
  - Underground publications have been distributed.
  - Students are identified with activist groups.
  - Absenteeism is increasing.
  - Groups of students are approaching the administration with demands.
  - School officials are challenged by student groups or by the individual student with adult support.

* Poor organization for interpersonal relations
  - Out-of-school persons are free to enter and leave school premises.
  - Students needs are ignored by school employees.
  - Two-way communication is lacking.
  - Publications stress negativism regarding the schools.
  - Administrators are avoided when students are seeking counsel.
  - Decision-making is an arbitrary-autocratic action.

Disruption in the nature of aggressive action occurs when students feel that their desires are not being considered, have been ignored, or that they have been wronged.

* In the event of a disruption, the administration should:

  - Perform with firmness and caution.

  - Make prudent statements.

  - Allow the students to present their grievances to administrative authorities with adequate opportunity for proper response or action.

  - Follow the school policy which has been formulated "before the fact."

  - Not exhibit rashness, act hastily, or make threats.

If the foregoing positive approach to student involvement has had time to become effective, the students themselves will assist in the prevention or solution of unrest. This is achieved by peer disapproval. In the desired climate, students themselves will handle many undesirable situations which never reach the teacher-administrator level. When youngsters develop their own codes of conduct, deviates are frowned upon. Pride in good grooming by the majority of students, for example, very often approaches and solves slovenliness in a positive manner. Many of the causes which have resulted in student unrest come principally from regulations being "handed down." In fact, when given the responsibility, student-made policies usually must be "toned down" by their teacher-sponsors.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Students project an image of the total school system, especially that which is primarily associated with youth participation. It is perfectly within ethical bounds to recognize that students are messengers to home and public and that they should be included as one of the important media for public relations.

What stimulus is most effective to cause messages to be delivered? From childhood to adulthood we tend to tell about our particiption -- less frequently what we observed or heard about. Therefore, it becomes important to involve students as much and in as many of the various facets of school programs as possible. This concept does not preclude message carrying of the unfavorable experiences. A mixture which contains truth tends to aid credibility. However, it is the responsibility of education and student leaders to see that students possess full and correct information. Students will be discussing the schools; therefore, it is important that what they discuss contains pleasant and successful experiences.

Which has greater credibility, "this is what I heard" or "this is what we did." The answer is obvious that when one has been involved he is "best evidence." It would be repetitious to enumerate the PR implicatons of involvement. It is the purpose here to emphasize the concept that (1) the student is a messenger, both verbal and non-verbal; (2) students (being normal and human) tend to emphasize those activities in which they have participated; and (3) it is the responsisbility of leadership to provide favorable situations so that both (1) and (2) can be accomplished. The result is good public relations.

A review of the suggestions for student involvement in previous sections with community public relations in mind is convincing that the opportunities are present. They are limited only by the initiative and imagination of responsible leadership.

EVALUATION

The status quo usually is not good enough. The name of the game is change. To bring about improvements in discipline and in a program of student involvement, the "establishment" (which includes student representation) must step forward to the mirror and take a critical look. A careful examination will reveal strengths and weaknesses and will cause the thought processes to come up with some new and innovative ideas. An instrument for the evaluation of discipline and student involvement is included in INSTRUMENTS FOR THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOL SPECIAL SERVICES. (7). It organizes criteria so that an overall estimate can be made of programs in relation to optimum conditions. It is not all-inclusive and should not be interpreted as a limited devise. Used as directed, however, it can be helpful in planning better programs for student involvement and student conduct.

SUMMATION

If we accept "education for living in a democracy" as one of the valid purposes of our educational program, then life in the school should provide experiences in democratic living. Those experiences should be provided in the classroom, on the playground, in the principal's office and, in fact, in all phases of school life.

John Walton points out the ambiguous organizational role of students. It is not clear whether they are members of the school center or are customers or clients. The students are not on the payroll; yet, unlike customers, they are required to spend much of their lives in attendance, analogous organizationally to hospital patients, prison inmates, and residents of homes for the aged. There are serious questions about the rights of students to participate in academic and management affairs, with increasing evidence that students, particulatly in the high schools and junior high schools, are groping with the same questions. There is also indication that students are seeking continually greater involvement in their school center's functioning. The principal and the staff need to make that involvement relevant and knowledgeable.

The ability of students to participate effectively in decision making is frequently underestimated by both teachers and parents. It is often assumed that students cannot participate wisely in decision making until they are fairly mature. But skillful teachers make extensive use of pupil-teacher planning even in kindergarten. These experiences develop the leadership competencies of students and maximize the conditions for effective learning. They also minimize discipline problems. As students grow in their ability to solve problems and make decisions, they develop competence to participate in many phases of classroom management.

There are many school programs and policies that affect students so directly that they should share in the development of those programs and policies. Some examples are extracurricular activities, school discipline, class and club activities, and similar activities. Many schools have had long and successful experiences with student participation in school government, student councils, student advisory committees, and similar means for student particiption in decision making. Students not only participate in planning, but frequently administer or participate in the administration of many activities. The basic question that the principal must face in these activities is concerned with whether they are real or contrived. This can be answered only by measuring studenet involvement against the purposes.

Thus, the relationship between discipline in schools and student involvement is apparent It is true of all ages and organizations. If the end result accomplishes the purpose, the people must be involved in the planning procedures and evaluation. This kind of motivation is an integral part of human nature. Why then should schools not capitalize upon this means to obtain the behavioral objectives desired.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for DISCIPLINE AND STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

1. What is the role of the principal in constructing a "value consensus" on discipline procedures?

2. What are the reasons for involving students in the operation of the school? Identify methods of involvement of students in policy making. What is the value of their involvement in other activities?

3. Are there reasons for corporal punishment in the schools? What are they?

4. Why should student discipline procedures be incorporated into the operation of a school?

5. What are the characteristics of an effective student discipline program?

6. What are the implications of home-school cooperation in disciplinary matters?

7. Identify five or more major concepts about discipline and student involvement.

ADULT EDUCATION

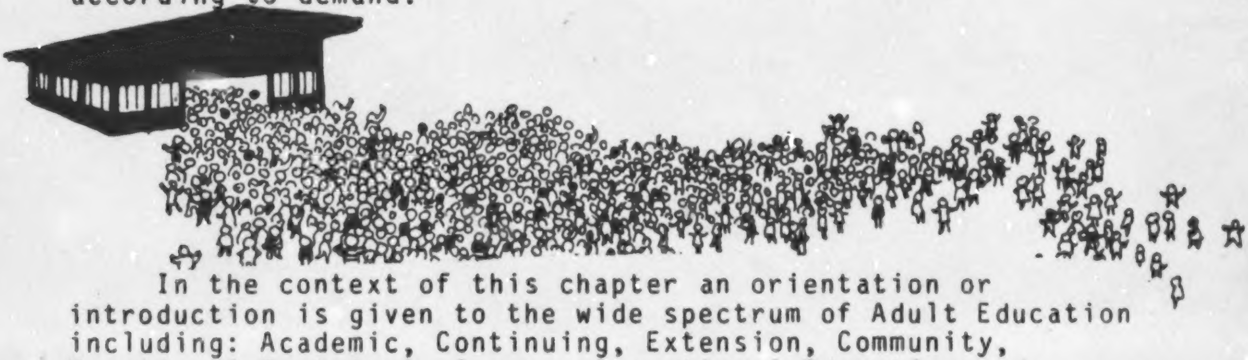
CHAPTER XIV

ADULT EDUCATION

The field of Adult Education in the United States has been in a stage of evolution for several decades. The trends seen in the historical process of its development have provided the terms by which Adult Education can be defined. There are Adult Education programs for the preparation of new citizens; for learning the basic fundamentals of reading, writing and arithemetic; individualized programs of vocational training or retraining; remedial work in academic subjects; and recreational, leisure time utilization.

This branch of America's educational system is a highly flexible one. Perhaps this is because the ideal of Adult Education was never conceived as a system at all, but was initiated through the sponsorship of various institutions for their numerous purposes. The Adult Education movement in America has developed largely in response to specific needs. The concept of Adult Education emerged from this "need-meeting" base rather than from a general plan for the continuing education of adults. When the thirteen colonies united to form a new nation there was a need to educate the adult population for their new status and responsibilities as self-governing citizens. With the onset of the industrial revolution, new skills were required of the former agrarian population. Adult vocational training had its beginning as institutes, apprenticeship programs, private vocational schools, and other establishments were formed.

Institutional sponsorship of Adult Education in this country has expanded rapidly and unevenly. The establishment and purposes of Adult Education activities have been chosen by each sponsoring institution in its own time. Historically, the role of Adult Education has been that of responding to the needs of the individual and of society as they arose. When the need is met or changes occur, the useful-ended system allows the activity to cease or change according to demand.



In the context of this chapter an orientation or introduction is given to the wide spectrum of Adult Education including: Academic, Continuing, Extension, Community, Vocational-Technical, Career, Avocational Education and Community Services.

EVOLVEMENT TO CURRENT STATUS

The school administration is concerned with all of these and other variations of programs for adults and out-of-school youths. Although the administrator may not be directly involved in the day-to-day operation of Adult Education, he must know enough to communicate with those who are involved and with the general public who hold him responsible for the total school system's success.

Most schools in the United States have been built, equipped, organized and administered for children. Yet, according to a survey conducted by the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Educaton, there are over five million adults studying various subjects in public schools. Superintendents of several large school districts have expressed concern over the estimation that they will soon have more adults than children engaged in learning activities in their school districts.

The education of adults taking place in local school districts is but a small part of the total Adult Education picture in our country. Allen Tough estimated tat 70% of all adut learning projects are planned and conducted by the learner himself. (14). Dr. Brookfield writes a critical review of the work of Allen Tough. The Purpose is to repair the omission by the British Audience of Tough's work. Tough attempted an empirical survey of the forms self-planned learning might take, to devise a metholodogy for its investigation that can be replicated by other researchers in different settings, and to generate a conceptual framework for its analysis. Criticisms are in the areas of Tough's (1) reliance on structured interviews, (2) his sample composition, and (3) self-planned learning as an inappropriate topic for adult education research.

Given that between two-thirds and three-quarters of learning efforts are self-planned, the instructionalized sector of adult education, towards which the attention of most practitioners and researchers is directed, becomes the tip of the adult "learning iceberg." (15:114) "The Massive bulk that is hidden below the surface turns out to be 80 per cent of the adult's learning efforts. It consists largely of self-planned learning, though some is planned by such other amateurs as friends and peers. Seeing professional services within this total context is useful: implications arise for fresh services and for present practices. (15:253)

This review of the research done by Tough supports learning activities in libraries, museums, voluntary organisations, and enthusiasts' societies.

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In a major study of the learning experience of adults, Johnstone and Rivera estimated that over 25 million American adults were engaged in some type of learning activity. But only 12% of the people contacted identified public elementary or secondary schools as the location of these learning activities. Over 21% identified with churches; 21% with colleges; 15% with community organizations; 12% with businesses; 7% with private schools and governmental agencies each; and 45 with the Armed Forces. (5:61);. Since then, the picture has changed. Federal and state funding plus the rise of the community school movement have undoubtedly produced a larger involvement of the local school district in the education of adults. The growth of community colleges across the nation has greatly increased the educational opportunities available to adults. The dynamics of a technological age have imposed tremendous needs for education and retraining on the businesses and industries of our nation.

The Adult Education movement today remains a number of segment responses to specific needs of adults rather than comprehensive, well-designed organism. A such, it is more in tune with the actual needs of its varied clients throughout the nation. But to the school administrator, it may be quite confusing. A dozen organizations in a locality may claim to offer similar services to the adults of the area with little awareness even of the others' existence. However, in areas where the local school district or the community college has assumed a leadership role in the education of adults, this lack of integration is beginning to disappear.

Also, it appears that the movement is growing in momentum and becoming less episodic in nature. The federal government is now spending several million dollars annually on various facets of adult education. A growing number of states have appropriated money specifically for educational activities for adults. And more and more local districts are setting aside a portion of their funds for adult programming. In prior decades, most adult programs had to be self-supported.

GROWTH PROJECTION

It seems almost inevitable that organized learning activities for adults will continue to grow. Vocational educators now predict that the average worker will not only change jobs six to eight times during his life but that he will need major retraining for at least three of these jobs. The need of the professional employee to update himself constantly is reflected in the growth of Continuing Education complexes and programs in major universities across the nation. Several labor unions have begun to experiment with educational opportunities as fringe benefits to contracts. At the same time, the growth of leisure and recreational activities implies increasing demands for appropriate learning activities. All of this is in addition to present programming which itself is far from meeting present needs in areas such as basic education for the undereducated or the school dropout, skill training emerging technologies, preretirement and retirement training.

PROGRAM CLARIFICATIONS

Precise definitions and exact parameters are difficult to find in Adult Education. Even the definition of "adult" has been vague. Since the late sixties when the age of 16 was established as a minimum age in most federally funded adult programs, 16 has become the general norm. Some state and local programs have tended to favor a later age. The concern that youth might drop out of secondary school to enter adult programs and the difficulties of teaching both teenagers and those over thirty in the same classroom have been a concern.

Age, however, is generally considered an insufficient criterion. Traditional programs leading to degrees or formal credit, for example, are not usually considered Adult Education. As a result, the trend to a socio-economic definition such as the following has become common. An Adult Educaton student is one whose major role in life is other than that of student. Even this approach becomes contradictory when full- and part-time students meet in the same classroom. Since some psychologists propose that there is a definite development in reasoning ability between 15 and 18 years of age, this might be more logical basis for a definition. Adult educators would certainly agree that there is a distinct difference in teaching those over this age.

One of the most noted differences between adult and youth education is that the students in most adult classes are non-captive. Poor teaching, irrelevant content, or repetitious methodology leads to disciplinary problems on the elementary or secondary levels. In Adult Education, it leads to the loss of the class -- physically. Time is important to adults; perhaps the most important element of their lives. Thus, educational activities have to be worthwhile with the pay-off being immediate rather than long-range. But at the same time the reward need not always be physical, as in a skill learned. Often social or self-enhancing goals are more pressing to the adult. Conversely, feelings of threat may be the major cause in keeping adults from organized learning situations. Fear of failure, attitudes about "schooling", uneasiness about teachers or other students, all lead to the general anxiety that has kept alive that falicious old maxim: "You can't teach an old dog new tricks". In addition, adults are generally responsible for what happens in their lives. They are leary of entering a situation (classroom) where someone else assumes the active, responsible role. The adult who experiences a learning situation in which he is active and responsible, which is enjoyable, and which he feels is rewarding, is an adult who thereafter is turned on to learning. For many, this is the ultimate goal of Adult Education: self-directed learners.

Adult Education Program Diversity

One of the major problems in the field of Adult Education is the meaning of the term to various people. In New Jersey it might connote vocational education for adults; in California, self-development or leisure education; in Texas, basic education for adults. One need not travel around the country to meet these diverse attitudes. Often they are present within the same community or school district. Adding to the confusion is the myriad of frequently redundant terms such as: adult basic and continuing education, community education and community services, career education and vocational education, and a vast area of subjects loosely grouped under such titles as avocational, leisure, self-development, or personality education. The following brief descriptions of these various program areas are given with the hope that they might both clarify and open new vistas in Adult Education programming.

ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

According to the 1980 census, .5% of the United States adult population was illiterate. Additionally, there were 3,244,000 high school dropouts between 16-21 years of age. According to the 1970 census, there were 57,667,171 people in the United States 16 years of age or older who were not enrolled in school and who had less than a high school education.

These are staggering figures in a modern technological society. In 1964, as part of the Economic Opportunity act, federal funds were appropriated for the education of such adults. This portion of the act was superseded in 1966 by an Adult Education act. Under the terms of the act, funds are allocated to states in accordance with a formula based on the number of adults with less than a high school education and those with less than an eighth grade education. State Education Agencies are required to submit a state plan for the use of the money; state agencies in turn allocate funds to local school districts, Community Colleges, or other groups which submit local proposals. These proposals must be based on plans to furnish free instruction in reading, English, and mathematics to all persons over 16 years of age who are not attending school in te K-12 program, and who have less than twelth grade functional level.

The EO Act expired on June 30, 1973. Adult Education Programs have operated since that time under a Continuing Resolution. New legislation has provided for expanded funds, State or local support is often available for Adult Basic Education activities. This enables local programs to direct efforts to needs not adequately attended to in federal guidelines. Texas, for example, in 1973 passed legislation to appropriate funds for GED (High School Equivalency Test), high school completion, and community education of adults.

Need Is Apparent

Behind this legislation is the idea that every person in the United States is entitled to an education which will enable him to be a fully functioning member of society. This is seen as both an economic and a humanitarian goal. This is seen as both an economic and a humanitarian goal. In the economic aspect, undereducation usually goes hand-in-hand with unemployment or underemployment. The dollars and cents cost of unemployment to the community is far above the cost of making remedial education available to those who need or want it. It has been estimated that this investment pays back the cost of education through increased taxes within three years. In addition, recent studies have shown that Americans can expect to change jobs six times during their working years; many of these changes demand increased reading and computational skills. And even jobs that required little or no formal education in our relatively recent past now require considerable reading ability. As an example, building custodians must be able to read fairly complex instructions in order to be able to operate equipment correctly.

In the humanitarian aspect, there is concern for the equality of opportunity that is inherent in the American Dream. This concern is not only for under-educated adults, but for their children as well. While there is no reliable research on the subject, there is a growing impression among educators that educational deficienty, like poverty, is self-feeding. There is at least the hope that if adults can see, in their own lives, the value of continuing education, they may be more apt to encourage their children to remain in school long enough too tet a high-school education.

Mezirow gives "a charter for andragogy". Andragogy is defined as an organized and sustained effort to assist adults to learn in "a way that enhances their capability to function as self-directed learners." He says to do this it must:

1. Progressively decrease the learner's dependency on the educator
2. Help the learner understand how to use learning resources
3. Assist the learner to define his/her learning needs
4. Assist learners to assume increasing responsibility for defining their learning objectives, planning their own learning program and evaluating their progress
5. Organize what is to be learned in relationship to his/her problems
6. Foster learner decision making
7. Encourage the use of criteria for judging
8. Foster a self-corrective reflexive approach to learning
9. Facilitate problem posing and problem solving
10. Reinforce the self-concept of the learner as a learner and doer by providing for progressive mastery
11. Emphasize experiential, participative and projective instructional methods
12. Make the moral distinction between helping the learner understand his/her full range of choices and how to improve the quality of choosing vs. encouraging the learner to make a specific choice. (9: 22)

Through this, Adult Education has grown steadily and is expected to be a stable adjunct to the public school sector.

Organization

Pursuant to the goals of the Adult Education Act of 1966, instructional programs are generally planned for three levels: Level I, corresponding roughly to grades 0-3; Level II, grades 4-6; and Level III, grades 7-8. Students in these categories are often (though not always) members of minority groups, migrant workers, or people from rural and inner city ares where little importance has been placed upon school attendance. In addition, in many parts of the nation, the special needs of the non-English speaker must be met. Most numerous in this category are the various Spanish-speaking populations of the Southwest, and Cuban and Puerto Rican immigrants.

On the secondary level, basic education for adults has taken two approaches. The more popular is the program leading to the General Education Development (GED) test which was developed to indicate competency equivalent to high school graduation. Validity studies on high school seniors have consistently indicated that the average graduating senior has a hard time passing the test. The five sections of the GED test take a total of six hours each to complete. They cover the following areas: Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression; Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Studies; Interpretation of Reading Materials in Natural Sciences; Interpretation of Literary Materials; and General Mathematical Ability. Required passing scores and other regulations vary according to state regulations.

Another method used is based on the traditional credit approach to graduation. Least successful are those programs which tie credit to time spent in a classroom. Others combine individualized instruction with credit by examination and credit for work or other experience. The North Central Accrediting Association has led in this movement to give adults credit for what they know regardless of where they learned it.

Recruitment

Some concerns of special significance to the ABE or GED administrator include providing an educational program for people who have experienced repeated failure and have sad memories of "schooling". Learning environments must be established which are non-threatening and which meet the variety of needs of the undereducated adults. Frequently, more time is needed for counseling than for teaching. Recruiting the "hard-to-reach" should be a concern also. Establishing contacts with community agencies that can support the instructional program or serve as referral agencies is a necessity. Present administrators are wrestling in particular with the problem of broadening the total program so that the adult will be able to face modern life not just academically prepared but with the social, personal, economic, and vocational skills necessary to be successful.

CONTINUING EDUCATION

This term has been used in a broad sense as generally equivalent to Adult Education. In fact, many agencies refer to their adult programming as "Adult and Continuing Education." This use of the term seems to have grown out of a desire to emphasize the notion that education is for all and that it is a continuing process throughout life.

The term, continuing education, also has been appropriated by many colleges and universities to describe their program offerings beyond the formal academic work. Perhaps this is more true in the South than in other parts of the country where the title, Community Services, is widely used to describe such offerings.

More specifically, the term has been used to refer to the further development of an individual after has received initial certification or training in his occupation, trade, or profession. This version of the term seems to have been promoted somewhat by both the Adult Education Association and the Kellog Foundation. In the early 1940's, the Kellog Foundation began to assist selected universities around the country in the establishment of "Centers for Continuing Education." In these projects, they view "continuing education" as one specific form of Adult Education. Others prefer to use the phrase, "professional development," to define such activities.

Program Sponsors

In this more restricted sense of continuing education, there have been three agencies in particular which have had a major impact on programming. They are the university, the professional organization, and business. While business and industry certainly have developed extensive training programs for employees, there has always been a trend to leave some of the continuing education of their staffs in the hands of the professionals -- the educators. As the value of the human resources of the business organization became more appreciated, business tended to support specialized programs in colleges and universities. This has occurred both through participation with the educational agency in the organization and planning of programs and through assistance in the funding of such special activities. Professional organizations have done the same. They have conducted studies of the needs of their members, co-sponsored programs, and used portions of their funds to promote learning activities. In fact, it has been suggested that one of the major roles of any professional society is the promotion of the continuing education of its members.

The universities' role in continuing education often has grown out of the initial preparation for the occupation or profession which was conducted at an institution of higher education. Certainly the resources, both human and material, frequently have been centered in the university. Major barriers to growth have been lack of funding, "ivory tower" philosophies, and inadequate leadership. Funding has not been as difficult a task as first conceived. The adult participant in continuing education programs or his employer, usually is willing and able to pay for this education. If capital outlays and administrative salaries can be provided through some sources of funding such as grants from business, profesional societies, foundations and federal or state projects, a good program will be self-supporting. Attitudes that suggest the university is lowering its standard by engaging in continuing education, competition between academic areas,and lack of good public relations between the continuing education program and other parts of the university or the community are hard to overcome and can strangle a program. Inadequate leadership often will result in poor overall use of the institution's resources and meaningless programming. This, in turn, contributes to unattractiveness to potential participants.

EXTENSION SERVICES

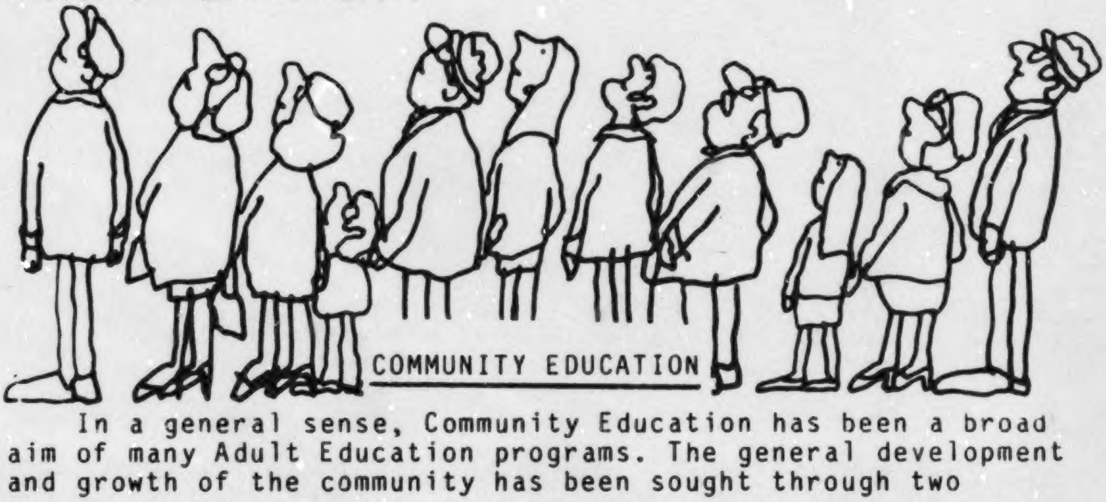
The university's role in Adult Education is emphasized in its Extension Services. The Cooperative Extension Service has been described as the largest Adult Education organization in the world. It came into existence in 1914 with the passage of the Smith-Lever Act which provided at least $10,000 annually to the Land Grant college of each state specifically for this purpose. The original, and continuing, idea of Extension is that the Service extends to all the people of the nation the educational resources of the

U.S. Department of Agriculture and the Land Grant Colleges; that they are flexible and innovative in doing this; and that they use other organizations, train lay leaders, and use local advisory committees whenever useful.

Organization and Administration

There are three levels of organization within the Extension Service -- federal, state and county. The Head of the Federal Extension Service is appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture who directs a program intended to stimulate, educate and assist state programs and maintain relationships between them and other federal agencies. The typical organization of the state level is one which is closely alligned with Agriculture and the Home Economics programs of the Land-Grant Institutions. Under the director, there usually exists a series of assistant directors and supervisors, program and area specialists, and the county agents. Several states have merged Cooperative or Agricultural Extension and the General Extension services of the university, with the director being designated as a Dean or Vice-President. The county agent usually has two or three professional Extension educators working with him. Most program development and implementation takes place on this level and is assisted tremendously by large numbers of trained volunteer leaders.

Although Extension Service has been closely identified with Agriculture, programming has ranged broadly through such areas as community development, youth, and anti-poverty activities. Because of its close ties to local needs and expectations and its constant emphasis on flexibility in programming, it has been able to meet the needs of the day. Extension Services can be a powerful resource for any Adult Education Administrator.



COMMUNITY EDUCATION

In a general sense, Community Education has been a broad aim of many Adult Education programs. The general development and growth of the community has been sought through two general approaches in the past. One emphasized the organization of various agencies in the community to work together in meeting the education needs of its citizens. The other used a more developmental approach seeking to stimulate or educate special groups within the community which in turn would influence its general development.

Today, however, the term Community Education usually refers specifically to the program promoted and sponsored by the Mott Foundation and others. In 1935, Charles S. Mott, Director of General Motors, and Frank J. Manley, Director of Physical Education for the Flint Michigan Schools, began a Community Education project. It proved so successful that they continued to broaden the program until today Flint serves as a model of Community Education.

The project began with Manley's idea that school facilities should be better utilized and Mott's grant of $6,000 accomplished this. Several schools were kept open in the evenings, on weekends, and during the summer months to provide recreational and educational opportunities for both youth and adults. The idea proved so popular with the people of Flint that soon all schools were being utilized in this manner. But fuller utilization of school facilities was only one aspect of the program. Other community organizations that were -- or could be -- serving the needs of Flint's people were encouraged to coordinate their efforts under the umbrella of Community Education. Grass roots contact was established through such measures as Block Clubs and Neighborhood Councils. Community Education directors were hired to devote their time to the promotion of Community Education activities.

Today, Centers for Community Education are operating out of fifteen institutions of Higher education in various regions of the country. Texas A&M University is one of the Regional Centers for the Southwest. Regional directors in these Centers work with the school districts of the area to get Community Education programs organized and improved. School districts across the country are making better use of their facilities. Community organizations are joining together to serve the needs of their people. And education is becoming more relevant to the needs and wants of the local community.

Community Education and Adult Education are not synonymous terms. Community Education is primarily a process to expand and coordinate the educational, recreational, and social services of a community to meet the needs of its people. Adult Education centers more on the theory and practice of promoting learning among adults. But they began with juvenile delinquency and crime as prime targets. Community Education emphasizes the coordination of community programs, and generally operates out of the local school system. Many, perhaps even the majority, of Adult Education programs are sponsored by agencies whose primary role is not educational; community development may or may not be one of their goals.

COMMUNITY SERVICES

Community Services is another term that has been used broadly to encompas many forms of adult Education. The popularity of the term has risen in direct correlation with the growth of the community college movement. Conversely, many would suggest that the popularity of the community college has grown in direct proportion to its emphasis on community services. Education, research, and service traditionally have been the three goals of institutions of higher education. The more an institution has emphasized this third goal of service, the more likely it is to have a true community services program.

Organizing and administering a community services program demands first of all a firm committment by the institution to the acceptance of its responsibility to be a center of community life through the use of its resources in service of community needs. Development of programs must be based on a sound knowledge of the needs and interests of the community. it usually calls for innovative thought to recognize the full potential of the institution and devise methodologies for meeting needs. Involvement of community members in the planning, conducting and evaluating programs often leads to both better programming and better response of participants. Finally, a good program demands sufficient funding and a competent staff. Funding, particularly in this area, is seldom simple. A good funding officer obtains revenue from a variety of federal programs as well as several state agencies. But hopefully he also has some committment from local sources to free the program to serve local needs. His success will determine the adequacy of the staff and the extent to which other personnel of the institution can be involved in the

community program. Care always should be taken to ensure that personnel involved know how to work with adults, are flexible, and desirous of meeting community needs.

Good community service programs offer a balanced selection of academic, vocational, and leisure-recreational type courses, but they are not restricted to course offerings. Cultural and entertainment activities also are provided in a variety of ways. The expertise of the institution's personnel is organized to be of service to the organizations and individuals of the community. When institutions have good community service programs, the total community becomes their campus. The Community College concept embodies community services as the major objective.

VOCATION-TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Undoubtedly the largest area of education for adults is occupationally related training. In Johnston and Rivera's study in the early 1960's, thirty-two percent of the total adult learning activities were vocational in nature. (5:51). In an HEW report on Adult Education in 1969, job training was the instructional source utilized by over 27 percent of those surveyed. (11). This was in addition to those who took vocational courses in school district or college programs. These figures have increased each year and are predicted to continue this upward trend.

One way of analyzing adult vocational programs is by dividing them into federally aided and non-federally aided programs. In the non-federally aided area there can be listed the private for-profit and non-profit schoools, home study schools, on-the-job programs of business and industry, and others. While the school administrator may find it advantageous to maintain contact with these programs, he is more likely to be involved in federally assisted programs.

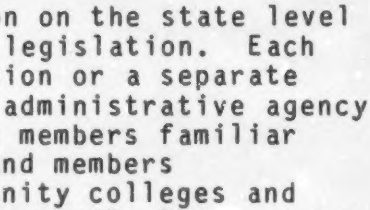
Provisions by the Acts

At the present time, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended, and the earlier Smith-Hughes and George-Barden Acts provided the major federal support for public school programs in vocational education. Although many school administrators are familiar with these programs as they support youth education, the Acts are also intended to support adult projects which aid in the training or retraining of individuals to achieve stable employment or promotion or are intended for persons having academic or socio-economic handicaps. In addition to these funds, federal assistance also is available under such laws as the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Emergency Employment Act, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1964, the Social Security act (Work Incentive Programs), and the Model Cities Act. Special groups such as the elderly or migrants can receive assistance through the Migration and Refugee Assistance Act, the Older Americans Act, or the Vocational Rehabilitation Act.

Organization and Administration

Organization of vocational education on the state level has been strongly influenced by federal legislation. Each state must designate its board of education or a separate board of vocational education to be the administrative agency of these funds. This board must include members familiar with the vocational needs of the state and members representative of agencies such as community colleges and technical institutes. A state advisory council also must be appointed which is widely representative of the state and its occupational concerns. This council must provide opportunity for the citizens of the state to express their views concerning it.

On the local level, administrative organization varies. Often, the vocational education administrator holds a position of sufficient rank to supervise a cmprehensive program. However, this is not always true of the person responsible for adult vocational programming. In addition, attitudes such as "Our schools are for children, not adults," "They had their chance," "We'd have to keep our buildings open after dark," cause some administrators to feel that adult programs are more trouble than they are worth. However, most school districts that have expanded their vocational offerings to include adults have found that this has enhanced their total program and improved school-community relations to a degree well worth the additional effort.



Staffing for Instruction

Staffing can be a problem in Vocational Education for adults. While many state plans specify occupational and academic experience in staff qualifications, few recommend awareness of the adult learning process. In some states, like Texas, the requirements for the local vocational educaton administrator on the post secondary and adult levels call for a Master's Degree, three years of successful occupational experience, and a knowledge of the state's vocational education program. The staffing problem can result in poor utilization of the principles and processes of Adult Education. Adults have different needs, interests, and background experiences than youth. Frequently, skill training alone will not prepare them for successful employment.

CAREER EDUCATION

Career Education is a term that has become popular in recent years. Although there are varying definitions of the concept, most educators insist one which includes more than skill or technical training. In popularizing the term, former Commissioner of Education, Sidney Marland indicated three elements he considered essential to a comprehensive Career Education program. These are: the basic academic skills; job information and skill training; and attitudes about the personal, psychological, social, and economic significance of work. Essential elements in the Career Education process have been listed as career awareness, job orientation and explanation, specialization and skill training.

The development of plans and models for Career Education have emphasized programs for the K-12 grades. The U.S. Office of Education, however, has promoted the development of a "Home-Based Model" which is to provide new Career Education programs specifically for adults. Other models also seek some opportunity for adult participation.

Application for Adults

For Adult Educators, Career Education concepts cause both hope and concern. Making education more relevant to daily living is a constant desire of those in the field. Career Education's recognition of the vital influence of attitudes, personal development, and feelings about the learning and living process encourages those working with adult learners. However, the whole developmental process suggested in Career Education, and made to look fairly simple on the elementary and secondary levels, has difficult problems on the adult level. Many adults have attitudes and values relating to work that conflict with societal patterns. A large percentage weak in the basic academic skills are considered essential to most occupations. Many adults have had little exposure to a variety of occupational patterns and little "career awareness".

Concurrent to the remediaation of such deficiencies, adults need to support themselves and their families. A prolonged developmental process is not what they want. Moreover, programs which call into question their traditions and cultural identities leave them disturbed and troubled. This procedure is the concern of many teachers of adults. They recognize the need for broad developmental education, but know that it must be adjusted to the time constraints and self identity of the individual.

AVOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMS

In many senses, this is the area that challenges most the creativity and resourcefulness of the local adult educator. There are no planned schemes to follow, no "canned" programs, no massive state or federal support. The administrator must match community needs and wants with resources available. In doing so, he must compete with all the other demands on the time of adults and with a variety of other agencies seeking to use the same resources. But the very history of Adult Education in our country is testimony to the fact that such a struggle is worth the effort.

Opportunities

In view of the myriad of possible activities and the flexibility of programming, it is very important for the local administrator to develop a philosophy or set of goals for such curricula. One possibility is to use such learning activities solely for their public relations value. Providing the superintendent's wife with an opportunity to learn macrame, the local banker to teach a short course in tax return preparation, or the women of the area to try "powder-puff mechanics" obviously can do much to influence acceptance of the total Adult Education

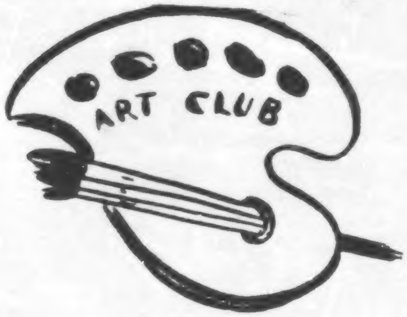
program. This is especially true when such activities are not only learning opportunities but also occasions of pleasant social contact. Communities discover it is easier to find support for funding proposals not only for the adult programs but for the total educaational budget, also. Recruitment becomes less of a task as "education" becomes the thing to do.

Development

Other adult educators feel a need to promote a deeper philosophy for their programming. Their emphasis is usually put on some aspect of either community development or development of the individual.

Social concern, citizenship, community awareness -- all are themes that can have a deep effect on avocational/leisure type curriculum. Others choose to work with their staffs to develop a deep concern for the individual and his psychological, social, and self-actualization needs. The conscious adoption of such goals influences not only the type of activities offered but details such as fees, location of learning activities, involvement of community resources, evaluation of programs, funding sources and selection of teachers.

The development of a functional set of goals also should open a vast number of areas for consideration in which programming might be offered. For example, are there activities in which a husband and wife -- or the whole family -- might engage together? Are short term or open entry programs available for those who cannot or do not want to make a long time committment? At the same time, is there a planned development of activities over a period of years for those who want or need such continuous involvement? Does the total program show concern for the needs of community organizations such as churches, business organizations, or public officials? Public relations courses for receptionists and clerks, speed reading for white collar workers, interdenominational discussion clubs or panels, and urban development programs for officials are examples that can be, but frequently are not, considered. And what of the "forgotten" people -- the elderly, the poor,the lonely, or those with special problems? Should a developmental/recreational program serve their needs?



Financial Support

Federal and state funding is seldom available for this avocational type program. However, many administrators have discovered that it is really not needed. Participants' fees together with contributions from community organizations, and hopefully, some support from the local school system usually will provide well for the running expenses of these learning activities for adults.

> "The financial resources generally utilized in adult education programs fall into the following broad categories: (1) participant fees and tuition; (2) parent organization subsidy; (3) federal grants; (4) private foundation grants; (5) state and local tax support; (6) employer financial support and (7) auxiliary enterprise income." (3:156)
>
> "...despite the common assumption that most adult education programs are nearly self-supporting through student fees, a recent survey of a large sample of these programs shows that although student fees are still the largest single income source in adult education programs, they account for only 39 percent of the total program resources...business and industry ...Religious institutions, labor unions, and employers, typically expect adult participants to pay little or none of the instructional costs, whereas educational institutions, such as public schools, community colleges, and universities, expect adult participants to pay most or all of the instructional costs that are not covered by state or federal appropriations..." (3:158)

THE CHIEF ADMINISTRATOR

In 1961 a joint statement was issued by the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Public School Adult Education, the Council of Chief State School Officers, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers entitled, "Adult Education in the Public Schools". These official policy-setting groups pointed out that public school Adult Education is a logical extension of the community's educational responsibility. Implementation of this policy would seem to imply that someone in each school district should be assigned the responsibility of directing the Adult Education program. Certainly in all but the smallest districts at least one full-time administrator would be necessary to fulfill these duties.

The local director or immediate supervisor is really the key to the total Adult Eduction program. He must be free of other duties so that he can build programs for adults. He must have initiative, flexibility, and the ability to understand and relate to people. He also needs status. In the public school system the director should fit into the administration directly, subject to the superintendent and parallel to, but separate from, the elementary and secondary staffs. (13)

In institutions of higher education, it is vital that the Director of Community Services (or whatever his title) have the status necessary to make the program operable. Since such an individual is to organize the resources of the institution to be of service to the community, he must be in a position to have some authority regarding the use of these resources. Most authorities in higher education suggest that his position should be equivalent to that of dean or vice-president.

In building an administrative staff, the head administrator should keep in mind needs other than solely those of content or program area. Public relations should be an essential element of every program. Counseling services should frequently be available to the adult students. Constant evaluation and updating of programs must be considered.

ORGANIZING AN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM

Although each program area has its own concerns and problems, there are common trends that run through all of Adult Education. In his book, A Philosophy of Adult Education, Paul Bergevin presented a set of goals and philosophic principles that could apply to all programs. (1). One of the principles that he and many other adult educators stress is that the adult participants should help plan, conduct, and evaluate any program established for them. Another way of saying this is that successful programs begin with the support and involvement of the community. One way of promoting such support and involvement is the use of advisory committees.

The Use of Committees

A good administrator should be aware of the skills necessary to achieve maximum benefit from an advisory committee. For example, in Adult Education it seems especially important to explain clearly to the committee members that they serve an advisory rather than decision-making function. The administrator must be aware that if he completely rejects the advice of the committee, its effectiveness will be reduced or eliminated. Another important skill is the ability to get the right people on the committee. It is important to have the purpose of the committee clearly in mind. Asking a committee to be representative of the needs and desires of the people of a community is an entirely different matter than asking them to make recommendations for curricula in a specific content area or using their aid in organizing the resources in the community. A broader involvement of community members can be achieved through the use of several temporary committees each of which have specific but different purposes Whatever his approach, the administrator should be aware of the tremendous help the members of the community can be in the formation of programs, the recruitment of participants, the assessment of needs and wants, the selection of teachers, the utilization of community resources, and the general promotion of the program.

Wants and Needs

Another vital principle in the organization of the program is that successful adult learning activities are based on the needs and wants of the participants. One of the ways in which the education of adults differs from all other forms of education of adults is that the participant is non-captive. There are occasions in which external constraints are present, but for the most part, the participants are there because they want to be and only as long as they want to be present. Thus, it is evident how essential it is for the administrator of the adult program to be able to keep his finger on the needs and wants of the community.

A distinction is often made between "wants" and "needs".

The term wants is used more commonly to refer to things people recognize as being desirable for their interests or felt needs. "Needs" carries with it the implication of deeper or unrecognized necessities. The immediate interests or desires of adult learners must be met to get them into an educational program; the deeper needs must be recognized and satisfied to keep them there.

There are several methods useful in discovering what people want in an educational program. The advisory board or committee is frequently a good source for insight into the community. This is especially true if the committee is representative of the people of the community. Frequently such groups recognized their inadequacy to fully represent their fellow citizens and turn to some kind of questionnaire or community survey. Surveys allow for input from many individuals and can be powerful instruments in establishing good public relations. Their weakness lies in their unreliability. The administrator who plans classes for 100 people in welding because 100 of those surveyed checked this as an interest is likely to be disappointed. Usually actual turn-out varies from a half dozen people to more than the number indicated in the survey.

Public records are another source useful in discovering needs of potential adult students. Census reports and other demographic data, employment commission studies, school records, planning committee documents, and other records can be of help in planning. Interviews of selected individuals or groups have also proven useful.

Recruitment

Occasionally interest in a specific area can be created by a well-planned publicity or recruitment program. Public relations and recruitment should be a constant concern of the Adult Education administrator. Development of extensive curricula in relative privacy followed by broad mass media publicity shortly before the beginning of activities will often produce poor results in attendance. Most recruitment studies of adult students have indicated that approximately 65% attend a program because of some personal contact. Through the involvement of individuals such as business and labor leaders, civic and social organization club members, church officials, former students, and advisory committee members, a wise administrator can get many "personal invitations" out to community members. The mass media approach of radio and newspaper announcements can be reinforced through use of posters and brochures, handouts taken home by students, T.V. spot announcements, telephone campaigns, billboards and numerous other means.

Selection and Supervision of Teachers

An often repeated rule in Adult Education is "We must teach people, not subjects." In most cases this is a good primary rule in the selection of teachers. People tend to have more individual differences and needs as they grow older. Occurrences at home, on the job, in the social, political, or cultural scene can stimulate needs that demand immediate attention. It takes a teacher with an ability to understand and relate to people to satisfy the learning needs of adults.

In addition, a teacher of adults should be competent in more than one major area. Ideally, he should have broad knowledge, skill, and experience in the subject being taught. He definitely should be well versed in the principles of Adult Education. But even more important is an understanding of the processes involved in adult learning. Because the adult is a voluntary participant in the learning process, the teacher who has nothing to offer, who treats the adults as children, or who makes his teaching more important than the adults' learning will soon have no class left on which to continue such malpractice.

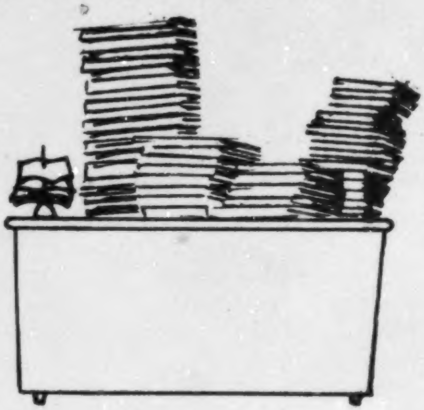
Good Adult Education teachers really are "where you find them." Most states do not have certification requirements for adult programs, and those that do usually permit exceptions for many areas of programming and for "temporary" instructors. While those with some teaching experience will probably remain the primary source of instructional personnel for the adult program, a good administrator will examine other possibilities. Business, industry, trade and professional groups may well have highly skilled members capable of handling special interest topics. Social agencies and community groups are also excellent sources for potential teachers. But the administrator would do well to compile a list of part-time or retired teachers, hobbyists, housewives, and other citizens who would be willing and capable of serving as paid or volunteer teachers in the Adult Education program.

Supplemental Training

It is quite likely that excellent prospects for the instructional staff may feel inadequate to teach adults. A good pre-service program can aleviate their fears. Also, it can reduce the possibility that individuals who are qualified in an area but have little feeling for the adult learning processes will lose half of their students in the first class session or two. Even with part-time and volunteer teachers it is possible to build a good pre-service and in-service staff development program on the local level. Increased effectiveness in the teaching of adults may be the primary objective of such a program, but it also can have valuable side effects in public relations and general promotion of the total program.

Materials, Methods, Facilities

Because the adult program often is considered an unessential addition to the regular school program, the administrator may face special problems in the use of equipment and facilities. Teachers and principals, who have exclusive direction of activites in a certain room or building during the day, have been known to become quite possessive of those facilities. A wise administrator will build rapport with these individuals before their discontent with the night-time use of "their" facilities leads to conflict. With the vast amount of educational buildings and equipment sitting unused during the hours that most adult programs occur, it would not be feasible to duplicate such resources.



The one occasion in which separate facilities should definitely be considered is that of an adult learning center. In its restrictive sense, this refers to a resource center in which most instruction is individualized. Housewives, the unemployed, and shift-workers are but three examples of groups that may find it more convenient to do their learning other than in the evenings. Central locations that are well-staffed and well-equipped have proved to be popular with large numbers of adults. Those with pressing needs may spend as many as eight or ten hours a day there, while others drop in as they have time. This may or may not be a school facility; a store front or church basement may do as well. As with the location of any adult learning activity, the primary concern should be: "Does the adult clientele feel welcome in this place?"

To compile a list of equipment commonly used in Adult

Education programs would be extremely difficult. There are some excellent programs that rely heavily on the latest educational equipment supplied by modern technology; there are others, equally successful, with very limited inventories. One trend, however, does seem to be emerging. Equipment which promotes individualized approaches to instruction is becoming increasingly popular.

Printed materials and other software designed for adult learning situations are becoming increasingly available. In some areas the selection is still quite limited but teacher-made materials can usually be found to supplement what is available commercially. The primary caution in selecting materials is to be sure that they are adult in content and appearance. Because of the limited size of the adult market, publishers occasionally try to stretch applicability of materials designed for adolescents to include adult students. Adults want books dealing with adult interests and problems. In some content areas this may be enhanced by including references to broad adult interests such as personal development, career improvement, or social concerns. When selecting materials for learners with limited reading ability, the administrator should carefully check the reading levels of the materials. Some administrators have solved the materials selection process by maintaining a file on the better materials and allowing the adult students to make their own selections.

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

The history of Adult Education indicates involvement with practice and innovation more than with research. It is not that research has been ignored, but rather that it has been borrowed from other fields. For example, J. R. Kidd introduces his landmark work, How Adults Learn, with the statement: "This is a book not for theorists by a theorist, but for practitioners by a practitioner." (6:11). However, he does use the findings of psychologists and sociologists as a basis for practical suggestions. Edmund des Bruner's Overview of Adult Education Research also relies heavily on these two fields. (2). There has been a change, however, since these two works were published. The growth of graduate programs in Adult Education and the availability of funds for research and demonstration projects has resulted in more relevant research in the field. But as

Neugarten stated in Middle Age and Aging, if life were compared to a football field and researchers to the spectators, the crowd would still be very thin in the center of the field. (10).

The administrator interested in recent research in the field might well refer to Adult Education which is a quarterly journal of research and theory. Or he might review some of the research and demonstration projects in adult learning supported by the U.S. Department of Education. Investigations such as the "Adult Performance Level" project conducted at the University of Texas to determine the competencies needed by an adult to function in today's society could be of interest to most administrators.

As for evaluation, this has been a serious concern of adult educators long before the dawning of "the age of accountability." So much so that Malcolm Knowles suggested in his Modern Practices of Adult Education that evaluation may have become the "sacred cow" of the profession. (8). But with regard to evaluation, adult educators are in a unique position. Because of the voluntary attendance factor of most programs, they are dependent upon improvement and excellence for continued existence. But quality programs demand competent decision-making which in turn depends on input or information from evaluative data gathering processes. So adult educators do need evaluation to improve and, therefore, maintain their programs.

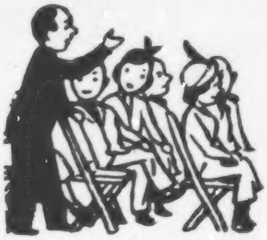
Yet the very nature of many programs makes them difficult to evaluate. Many are short term and cater to the immediate needs and interests of the clientele. The adult student typically has been classified as fearful of tests and suspicious of information gatherers. Very few programs employ any type of grading system and few records are kept on students, teachers, or curriculum. As a result, the administrator has frequently turned to the numbers game for evaluation. If large numbers of adults are enrolled in a learning activity, the curriculum planning was successful; if a teacher maintains enrollment, he or she must be a good teacher of adults; if the program in general grows, the administrator is succeeding. While the evidence indicates that there is some basis for such conclusions, it is less than valid to use numbers as the sole basis for programs or staff evaluation. For one thing, it nearly vitiates the need for leadership or development. It does not take into account areas of programming or population that may be limited but in desperate need of activities. Nor is there any certainty that the program will not collapse at any time without the administrator having even a remote idea of what went wrong.

In Administration of Continuing Education, Alan Knox presented a series of symptoms that indicate inadequate evaluation:

1. Slow increase in the number of adults enrolled, compared with similar programs.
2. Difficulty in attracting adults from a specified target population.
3. High dropout rate associated with an incompatibility between learning style and teaching style.
4. Low rate of learner persistence from year to year.
5. Limited learner directedness regarding planning, conducting, and assessing of his own educational efforts.
6. Many complaints by learners or teachers regarding a discrepancy among goals, resources, procedures, and learner background.
7. Unwillingness of the most qualified teachers to accept teaching positions in the division or to continue for another term.
8. Slow improvement of beginning teachers in the division.
9. Difficulty in placing in jobs or further education those participants who successfully complete a course of study in the division.
10. Frequent complaints from employers regarding the obsolescence of the knowledge and skills that their employees have obtained from courses in the division or the inability of the employees to apply what they have learned.
11. Few course sequences.
12. Lack of articulation between courses that are presumably part of a sequence.
13. High incidence of friction in relationships with the youth preparatory education programs of the institution.
14. Lack of support from policy-makers regarding budget requests and proposals for new programs.

This list is presented in the hope that it might stimulate administrators to improve their evaluation of Adult Education programs.

An instrument for the evaluation of Adult Education is included in *Instruments for the Evaluation of School Special Services*. (4). Regarding student evaluation, a few cautions should also be observed. Because of the vast array of different backgrounds and levels of knowledge present in most adult groups, some type of preassessment is usually necessary to determine learning readiness. This must be done with the proper orientation and with as little threat as possible or the result will lack reliability. In many instances of evaluation of adult learning, self-evaluation should be the prime concern. The adult student is capable of bearing the major responsibility for his own learning and will perform better when encouraged to do so.



Good evaluation procedures are possible. Adult students will take the time to provide feedback if they feel it will accomplish improvement. Administrators can develop solid bases for educational decision-making if they determine what they need to know and how to acquire this information.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Any new enterprise which enlarges the scope of present offerings is an area that merits special attention in public relations. To keep the school program abreast of real needs, neither too far ahead nor behind public opinion and demand, is a problem of first importance.

The "lighted schoolhouse" promises to become an American tradition, providing evening opportunities for people of all ages. When participants come from the whole population, the Adult Education program is a powerful medium for developing good public relations. It has tremendous potential of goodwill for the school system which sponsors it.

It is the people, many of whom are prospective students, who have expressed needs and asked the school system to expand its programs to include Adult Education. This unique feature of deep community ties should facilitate the essential task of developing and refining the two-way communication process that is inherent in good public relations. Receiving information from the public and giving it due consideration is essential if true public relations is a two-way street. The adult educator, then, needs to be a good listener.

A good amount of promotional activities has centered on the mass media approach, as well as posters, flyers, letters and brochures. In any of these approaches, three elements are crucial. The message must be realistic. It must be relevant to the interests and needs of the public to which it is intended. The message must be acceptable. It must be realistic, related in a positive manner, and delivered by credible people -- those with whom the target groups can identify. The message must reach those for whom it is intended. It must be consistent with the reading, viewing and listening habits of the target groups. The vocabulary and reading level of the client should be remembered. One has to think also about where the people are; the places they meet; the newspapers, radio stations or television stations that might interest them. When applicable and possible, "ethnic" newspapers as well as radio and television stations should be used.

The nonreader or less sophisticated reader requires another method of contact. Door-to-door program promotion by well-trained recruiters is effective. If the adult educator realizes that he has personal and communications limitations with the target group, he should rely upon persons with whom the group can relate.

To effectively maintain good public relations is to personalize the program as much as possible. The Adult Education office should be easily accessible. The person in charge should be available when needed. The entire staff -- clerical, teachers, aides, etc. -- should be well informed concerning the program. Community involvement, publicity, promotion, feedback, evaluation and good communication with the school personnel will be of little value unless there is good public relations within the program. The success will be reflected in the response of the clientele and the community as a whole.

Adult Education programs are prime public relations media. Several hundred happy, satisfied participants are liberal with their praise to their respective associates. Like fingers on a hand, one extends to many. Since a comprehensive adult program includes people of all socio-economic strata, the message is delivered to a total community. The significance of this fact is that a favorable image of Adult Education programs transfers very freely to the total school system which sponsors them. A school administrator who does not realize this has not yet fully experienced the potential for Adult Education as a viable avenue of good school-community relations. Adult Education _is_ public relations.

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INDIVIDUAL PREPARATION for ADULT EDUCATION

1. Define and distinguish between the following:

   a. Adult Basic Education

   b. Continuing Education

   c. Extension Services

   d. Community Education

   e. Community Services

   f. Vocational Technical Education

   g. Career Education

   h. Avocational Developmental Programs

2. When should career education begin? What are the characteristics of a comprehensive career education program?

3. How can extensive use of adult education programs enhance public school cooperation in relation to the regular program for day students?

4. Identify five or more major concepts about adult education.